DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 439 973 SO 027 313

TITLE	Pre-School and Primary Education in the European Union.
INSTITUTION	EURYDICE European Unit, Brussels (Belgium).
SPONS AGENCY	Commission of the European Communities, Brussels (Belgium). Task Force on Human Resources, Education, Training, Youth.
REPORT NO	D/1994/4008/2
ISBN	ISBN-2-87116-217-4
PUB DATE	1994-00-00
NOTE	119p.; For the supplement to this document, see SO 027 314.
AVAILABLE FROM	EURYDICE European Unit, Rue d'Arlon 15, B-1050 Brussels, Belgium. Tel: 32-2-238-30-11; e-mail: info@eurydice.org; Web site: http://www.eurydice.org.
PUB TYPE	Numerical/Quantitative Data (110) -- Reports - Descriptive (141)
EDRS PRICE	MF01/PC05 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS	Area Studies; Comparative Education; *Elementary Education; Elementary School Curriculum; Foreign Countries; *International Cooperation; *International Educational Exchange; Preschool Curriculum; *Preschool Education; Tables (Data); *Teacher Education; Time Management; Time On Task
IDENTIFIERS	*European Union

ABSTRACT

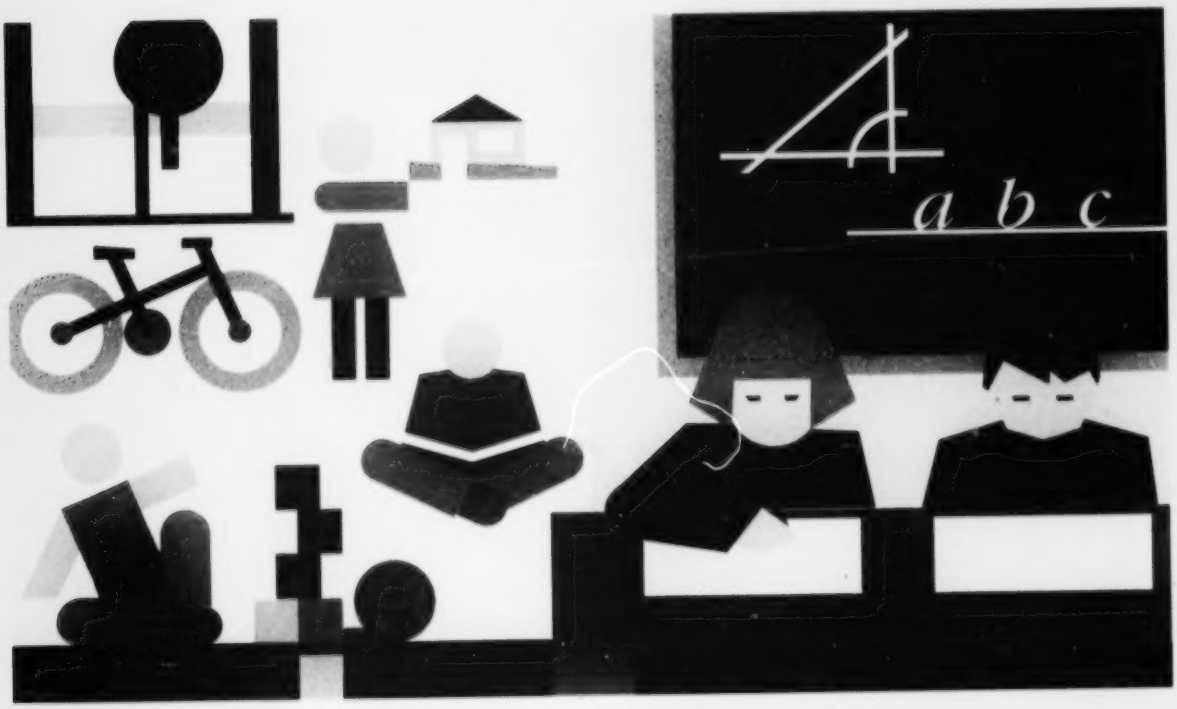
This report contains basic data about the organization and structure of pre-school and primary education in the educational system of the countries of the European Union. Three essential aspects of children's schooling are addressed: (1) the pattern of the school year and the time devoted to teaching; (2) organization of teaching and evaluation; and (3) the development and content of educational programs. Some information on the initial training of teachers also is provided. The report is divided into two parts. Part 1, "General Organisation," contains: (1) "The Structure of Education"; (2) "Time Spent in School in Primary Education"; and (3) "Provision for Pupils in Primary Schools Out of School Hours." Part 2, "The Education Process," includes: (1) "Pre-School Education"; (2) "Primary Education"; and (3) "Transition to Secondary Education." Three annexes of data tables are appended. (EH)

Reproductions supplied by EDRS are the best that can be made
from the original document.

ED 439 973

EURYDICE

PRE-SCHOOL AND PRIMARY EDUCATION IN THE EUROPEAN UNION



SO 027 313

PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE AND DISSEMINATE THIS MATERIAL HAS BEEN GRANTED BY

Cristle De Lel

TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)

1

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
Office of Educational Research and Improvement
EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)

☑ This document has been reproduced as received from the person or organization originating it.

☐ Minor changes have been made to improve reproduction quality.

• Points of view or opinions stated in this document do not necessarily represent official OERI position or policy.

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

EURYDICE
The Education Information Network in the European Union

PRE-SCHOOL AND PRIMARY EDUCATION IN THE EUROPEAN UNION

EURYDICE
The Education Information Network in the European Union

Available in DE-EN-ES-FR-IT-NL-PO
D/1994/4008/2
ISBN 2-87116-217-4

The contents of this publication may be reproduced in part, except for commercial purposes, provided that the extract is preceded by a complete reference to "EURYDICE, the Education Information Network in the European Union", followed by the date of the edition of the document.

Requests for permission to reproduce the entire document must be made to the European Unit.

European Unit of EURYDICE
Rue d'Arlon 15
B - 1040 Brussels

Tel. 32-2-238.30.11
Fax 32-2-230.65.62

CONTENTS

PART I : GENERAL ORGANISATION

Chapter I. THE STRUCTURE OF EDUCATION

1. Length of the period of compulsory education 9
2. Stages in schooling from ages 2 to 18 10
3. Pre-school and primary education (from age 2 to age 12) 11
4. Pupil numbers 13
   4.1. Distribution of pupils between the private and public sectors 13
   4.2. Trends in numbers in primary education 16
5. Initial training of teachers 18
   5.1. The pre-school stage 18
   5.2. The primary stage 18

Chapter II. TIME SPENT IN SCHOOL IN PRIMARY EDUCATION

1. Distribution of school holidays 21
2. School days and holidays in the calendar year 23
3. Patterns of schooling within the week 24
4. Teaching time in the school day 32
5. Number of teaching hours per year 34

Chapter III. PROVISION FOR PUPILS IN PRIMARY SCHOOLS OUT OF SCHOOL HOURS

1. Social context 37
2. Opening of schools outside teaching hours 40
3. Authorities responsible for timetabling 43
4. Activities organised outside school hours 45
5. Responsibility for organising provision out of school hours and standards of staffing 47
6. Financing the services 50
7. Staff providing supervision 52
8. Arrangements for pupils outside school hours in private schools 53
9. Attendance rates in provision out of school hours 55

PART II : THE EDUCATION PROCESS

Chapter I. PRE-SCHOOL EDUCATION

1. Role and objectives of pre-school education 59
2. Forms of provision and supervision 59
3. Statistics on school attendance - ages 2 to 6 60
4. Decisions and issues regarding the transition from pre-school to primary school 65

Chapter II. PRIMARY EDUCATION

A. Educational Programmes and their Content

1. Responsibility for developing educational programmes 67
2. Levels of decision-making for different aspects of the educational programmes 68
3. Criteria for the development of primary school curricula 76
4. Frequency of review of programmes 78
5. Mechanisms to control the implementation of educational programmes 80
6. Definition of course content 82
   - 6.1. Subjects taught (ages 6-9) 82
   - 6.2. Number of teaching hours per subject (ages 6-9) 83
7. Social aims in the school programmes 86
8. Specific guidance on methods 88
9. Subject textbooks 90
10. Official guidance on the composition of classes 90

B. Assessment, Promotion and Certification 92

C. Organisation and Staffing 100

Chapter III. TRANSITION TO SECONDARY EDUCATION

1. Conditions for admission to secondary school and orientation 103
2. The debate on the transition from primary to secondary school 105

ANNEXES 107

BIBLIOGRAPHY 115

FOREWORD

In the majority of Member States of the European Union, the period of education which extends from the ages of 2 to 12 takes in the pre-school and primary stages. With the democratisation of education and the extension of the period over which it is compulsory, more and more is being asked of it. This first stage of schooling has not only to enable all children to acquire basic skills but also to incorporate the technological and cultural developments of our societies and prepare young people for further study.

The importance of this period of education is recognised by all the Member States. However, the specific problems encountered, the arrangements made and the way in which things are organised, as well as the solutions adopted to meet the new demands on basic education, vary from one education system to another. In view of its interest, and with the support of the Task Force Human Resources, Education, Training and Youth of the Commission of the European Communities, this topic was chosen for discussion at the meeting of Senior Officials organised under the Belgian Presidency on 13 and 14 September 1993.

The working document which supported the discussions and thinking at this meeting was edited by the EURYDICE Unit of the French Community in Belgium with the collaboration of the EURYDICE network, which provided the necessary basic information. The European Unit of the network co-ordinated the compilation, preparation of the graphs and the final version of the document.

Following upon this work and given the interest of the subject matter for the whole of the educational world, the Task Force Human Resources encouraged EURYDICE to publish this document which contains basic data on the organisation and structure of pre-school and primary education in the educational systems of the countries of the European Union.

Three essential aspects of children's schooling have been addressed: the pattern of the school year and the time devoted to teaching, organisation of teaching and evaluation, and the development and content of educational programmes. Some information on the initial training of teachers has also been provided.

The EURYDICE network and the Ministry officials responsible for the subject under discussion were encouraged to work closely together on the production of the final version of this document. Thanks are due to them here for the essential contribution they have made to the reliability of the factual information.

We hope that this new publication from the EURYDICE network will be useful to both those responsible for policy and who want to know how education is organised in the European Union, and to those involved in the world of education.

Luce Pépin
Director of the EURYDICE
European Unit

April 1994

PART I : GENERAL ORGANISATION

Chapter I.

THE STRUCTURE OF EDUCATION

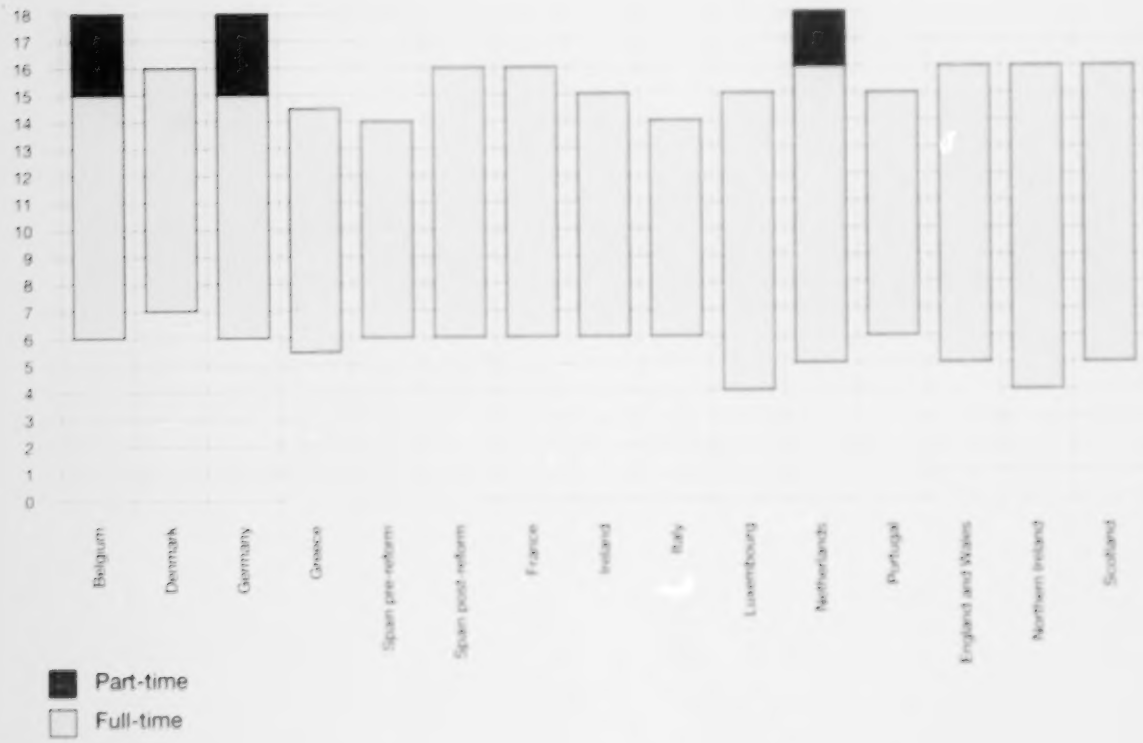
1. Length of the period of compulsory education

In the majority of countries in the European Union, compulsory education begins at the age of 6 and finishes about the age of 16. In some countries, it begins earlier. For example, in Luxembourg and Northern Ireland, education is compulsory from the age of 4. In the Netherlands, England, Wales and Scotland it begins at age 5 and in Greece at age 5 1/2. In contrast, in Denmark the start of compulsory education is set at age 7.

Compulsory education in general lasts for 9 to 11 years. It is shortest in Italy and Spain (before the reform of its educational system under the basic law of 1990 *(LOGSE)* on the general structure and organisation of the educational system) where it extends over 8 years. On the other hand, in other countries (Belgium, Germany, Northern Ireland and the Netherlands) it lasts over more than 11 years, if years of part-time schooling are counted.

The length of the period of compulsory education is currently under discussion in several countries of the European Union. The general tendency of the proposed modifications is towards a lengthening of the period of compulsory education. Belgium and Denmark have in mind to lower the age of starting compulsory attendance at school, while Italy is proposing to raise the age at which pupils end compulsory education.

Graph 1 : DURATION OF COMPULSORY EDUCATION

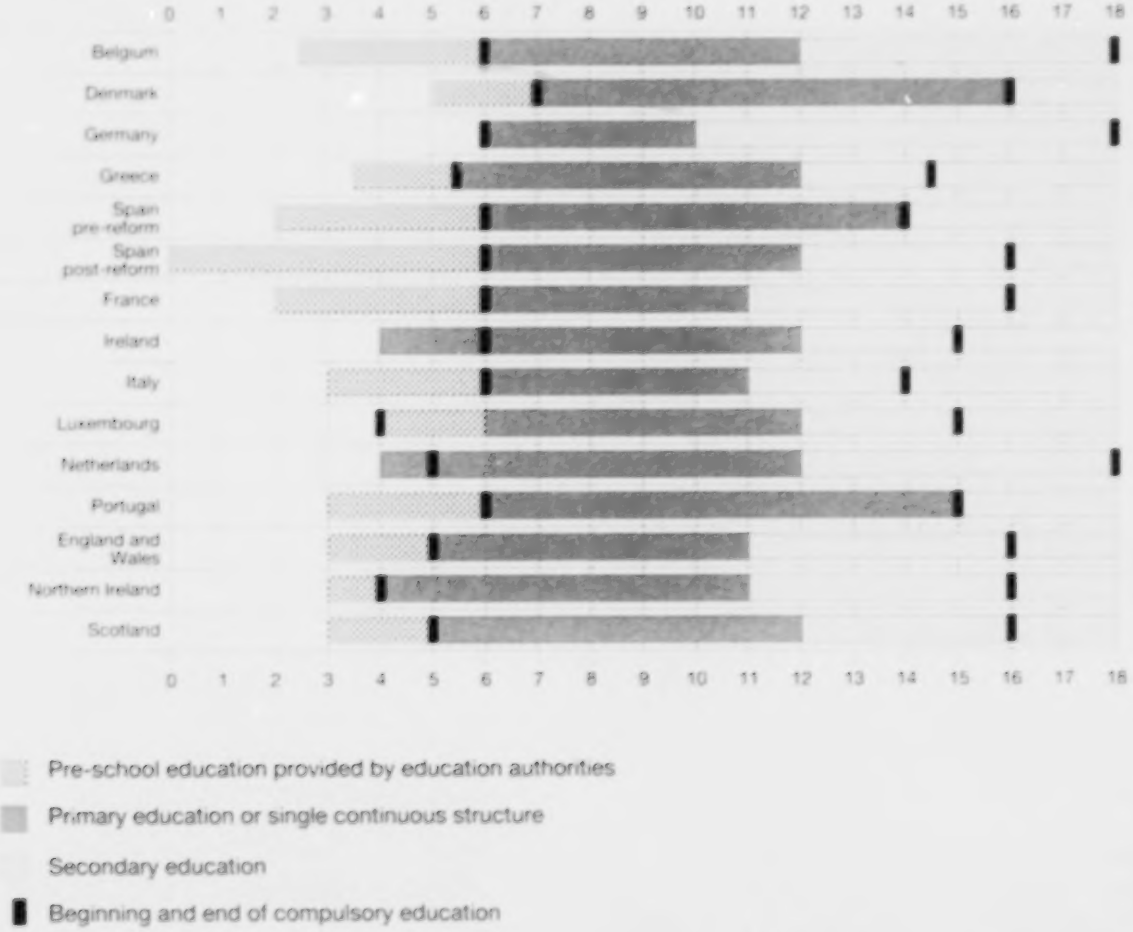


2. Stages in schooling from ages 2 to 18

In the majority of Member States, there are characteristically three stages in the educational process between the ages of 2 and 18: pre-school, primary and secondary. The organisation of this division of schooling varies from educational system to educational system. In fact, depending on the country, children of the same age can be experiencing different stages of schooling.

Graph 2 puts together the principal stages of schooling. It includes (as do all the other tables and graphs in Chapter I) only those structures which are the responsibility of education authorities, financed entirely or partially by Education Ministries. At the pre-school level, there are other structures under the aegis of Social Affairs Ministries and financed publicly or by private organisations, which take responsibility for younger children or which offer alternative provision prior to the beginning of compulsory education. These structures are not included here. They are dealt with in the chapter devoted to pre-school education (in Part II). In Germany, in the great majority of the *Länder*, the establishments at elementary level (*Kindergärten*) are subject to the Ministries of Social Affairs; the *Kindergarten* is regarded in Germany as an educational establishment, regardless of whether it is subject to the Social Affairs or the Education Ministry.

Graph 2 : STAGES IN SCHOOLING FROM AGES 2 TO 18



Children can be enrolled in the majority of the educational systems of Member States from the age of 3 or 4 to receive pre-school education. In Belgium, the age of admission is set at 2 1/2. Children in France, and Spain before the reform, can be enrolled in school from the age of 2.

In Spain, the organisation of the whole of the *educación infantil* for children between 0 and 6 years of age will be completed in the course of the coming years.

In Germany (in some *Länder* and only in a limited number of schools) and in Denmark, nursery classes attached to the school accept children from the age of 5. In the Netherlands and in Ireland, pre-school education is not organised separately but is integrated directly with primary education. In Ireland, the first two years of the primary school are called "Junior Infants". In Northern Ireland, compulsory primary education begins at 4. Children can be accepted at the age of 3 in nursery classes attached to primary schools.

In general, the beginning of primary education and that of compulsory education coincide. Primary education begins between the ages of 5 and 7 and finishes between 10 and 12, when secondary education starts in almost all the countries of the European Union. In Denmark, secondary education does not start until the age of 16. In fact there is educational continuity throughout the whole of compulsory education, without any break between the ages of 7 and 16. This single structure is called the *Folkeskole*. In two other countries, pre-school and primary education are also integrated within a broader basic structure. Through the organisation of a structure of basic education, *Ensino Basico*, from 6 to 15, Portugal has postponed to age 15 the beginning of secondary education proper. The third cycle of this compulsory basic education corresponds to the first cycle of secondary education in the majority of countries. The *Educación General Básica* in Spain (before the reform) covers the whole of compulsory education up to the age of 14.

3. Pre-school and primary education (from age 2 to age 12)

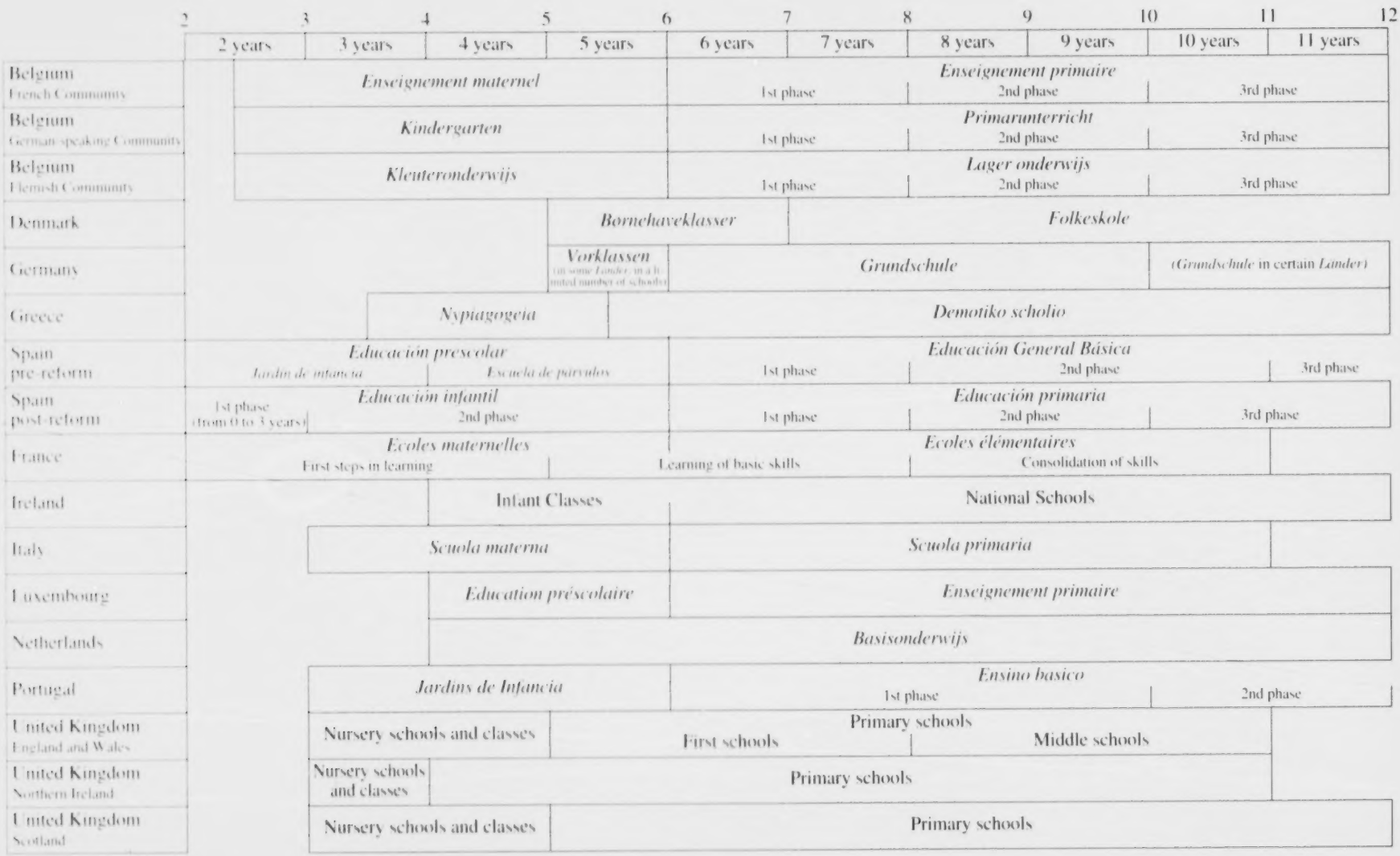
As Graph 3 shows, several countries have adopted a structure of cycles or stages of two or more years within the general framework of pre-school and primary education. In Belgium, primary education extends over six years, and is divided into three stages, each of two years. In Italy the *scuola elementare* is divided into two cycles. In Portugal *Ensino Basico* is divided into three cycles.

Other countries have established cycles within both pre-school and primary education. For example, in Spain (after the reform) *Educación infantil* is divided into two cycles and *Educación primaria* into three. In France, the stages of nursery education and elementary education are taken together and divided into three cycles. The second cycle, called the learning of basic skills *(apprentissages fondamentaux)*, includes the final year of nursery education and the first two years of the elementary level.

In half of the educational systems of the European Union, children finish the primary stage at age 12. In some cases this education finishes earlier: at age 10 in Germany (in two *Länder*, Berlin and Brandenburg, the primary stage is extended by two years), at 11 in France, in Italy and in the United Kingdom (except Scotland).

In the United Kingdom (England and Wales), the structure can be divided into two stages, (primary and secondary school), or three (first, middle and secondary school). These two methods of organisation coexist depending on the particular arrangements of each local education authority.

Graph 3 : PRE-SCHOOL AND PRIMARY EDUCATION - STRUCTURES COMING UNDER THE EDUCATION SYSTEM



BEST COPY AVAILABLE

4. Pupil numbers

4.1. Distribution of pupils between the private and public sectors[1]

In all the Member States of the European Union, parents have the option of choosing between education organised by the public authorities and education run by organisations in the private sector (either subsidised by the state or not).

In general, the schools in the public sector are characterised by having no religious affiliations, while the schools in the private sector can belong to a variety of categories: denominational schools or non-denominational schools, schools providing alternative education, schools equivalent to those in the public domain, schools under contract to the state.

Private education subsidised by public authorities must normally observe certain minimal conditions such as a minimum programme and/or teaching timetable laid down by law. Private schools can be subject to different types of control by the education authorities in the public sector.

The statistical data point up considerable differences among the countries of the European Union in regard to the extent of private education. The most significant divergence is between the Netherlands where almost 70% of pupils in primary education attend a private school and Germany, Ireland and Luxembourg where this form of education represents less than 5% of the school population.

Table 1 : Percentage of pupils in **pre-school** education enrolled in private schools (whether or not these schools are subsidised)

	B			DK	D	GR	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	P	UK	
	Fr. Com.	Ge.-sp. Com.	Fl. Com.											Engl. Wales N.I.	Scot.
Total private	40.4	7	69.6	-	-	5.1	38.9	12.3	-	48.1	-	-	64.1	6	-

Source : Private/Non-State Education: Forms and Status in the Member States of the European Community, EURYDICE 1992.

Table 2 : Percentage of pupils in **primary** education enrolled in private schools (whether or not these schools are subsidised)

	B			DK	D	GR	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	P	UK	
	Fr. Com.	Ge.-sp. Com.	Fl. Com.											Engl. Wales N.I.	Scot.
Total private	44.8	11	64.7	10.9	1	5.8	34.9	14.9	1.4	8	2.3	68.8	6.8	5	2.6

Source : Private/Non-State Education: Forms and Status in the Member States of the European Community, EURYDICE 1992.

[1] For further details, see Private/Non-state Education: Forms and Status in the Member States of the European Community, EURYDICE, 1992.

National data on private education

Belgium

For the most part "free" education, that is to say education organised by private individuals, is subsidised. It can be divided into three categories: denominational education (in which Catholic education occupies by far the most important place), non-denominational education, and independent schools. Admission to pre-school and primary school is free of charge for the institutions administered or subsidised by the communities. For pupils required to attend compulsory education, no fees can be asked or accepted either directly or indirectly. Charging of school fees is not permitted.

Denmark

Schools at the *Folkeskole* level listed under the heading "private schools" include small independent schools in rural districts, religious or denominational schools, free progressive schools, schools with a particular pedagogical orientation, schools of the German minority and schools for immigrants. Private schools are financially independent. All private schools have the right to receive state subsidies but they also charge school fees. If the amount they receive from these fees is excessive, the school loses its right to state subsidies.

Germany

In Germany, the pre-school education provided in kindergartens is not a part of the school system and is not subject to the school inspectorate. For this reason, it has not been taken into account in the statistics. It must, however, be noted that establishments run by independent organising bodies (particularly by churches and charitable organisations) are very significant in terms of numbers (approximately 70% of all such establishments in the old *Länder*).

Among private schools, a distinction is made between institutions based on two different types of statutes: substitute schools *(Ersatzschulen)* and supplementary schools *(Ergänzungsschulen)*. Only the former have a status equivalent to that of the public schools. The organising body may be an individual or a corporate body, recognised as either serving the public or seeking to be financially profitable, and may or may not be run according to specific religious or philosophical beliefs. In principle, only substitute schools have the right to financial assistance from the state. Private schools continue to receive school fees, which cover a certain proportion of actual costs. In the case of *Ersatzschulen*, school fees must be kept low in order to comply with the clause prohibiting discrimination against pupils on the basis of personal wealth. In the new *Länder*, the legal basis for creating private schools has been in existence since 1990. Several private schools have been formed since then.

Greece

Private schools can be established by private individuals of Greek nationality or by corporate bodies if the majority of executive members is made up of Greek nationals and, in the case of companies, if the greater part of the capital and the majority of executive members are Greek.

In addition to Greek private schools, there are also foreign private schools. These have their own programme of studies. No private schools are subsidised by the state. Pupils in this type of school pay school fees, including paying for textbooks, the opposite of pupils in the public schools.

Spain

Private schools may be formed by individual initiative, by the Catholic Church, or by other religious denominations. Some private schools are not subsidised by public funds; these are the non-recognised schools. They are autonomous in organising their finances. Other private schools are recognised. They receive a subsidy from the state. At the compulsory level of education, these schools are fully funded and must provide education free of charge.

France

Private schools can enter into a simple contract *(contrat simple)* or a contract of association *(contrat d'association)* with the state. The state takes responsibility for paying teachers in private schools under contract, either simple or of association. In the case of a *contrat simple*, the subsidy from the state must result in a reduction of the school fees charged to families. On the other hand, classes under *contrat*

d'association are provided free of charge. At the same time, families can be asked to contribute to the cost of equipping and building schools and of religious instruction.

At the primary stage, the *commune* in which the school is located must bear the cost of primary classes for pupils domiciled within its territory.

Ireland

The great majority of primary schools are *National Schools*, i.e. are parish schools established under the patronage of diocesan authorities and subsidised by the state, which explicitly recognises their denominational character. In recent years, a small number of multi-denominational schools have been established. They are subsidised by the state in the same way that denominational schools are. The truly private or non-subsidised sector is not highly developed at the primary stage. Its expenses are covered to a large extent by enrolment fees, but also by other revenues such as donations or the management's private funds.

Italy

Private schools can be run by either an individual or a corporate body. In the latter case, it can be a private organisation, a public organisation (such as a commune or province), a religious community, a co-operative or a non-profit-making company. At the primary stage, non-official schools can be entirely private *(scuole private)*, subsidised by the state *(scuole sussidiate)* or recognised as equivalent to public schools *(scuole parificate)*. Although private education receives some funds from the public sector, thanks to school building programmes, it is always official policy not to finance private schools.

Financial assistance is rarely given to private schools, and when awarded it takes the form of subsidies or grants paid to institutions which meet educational or social needs that official schools have been unable to cover. Subsidised primary schools for less than six pupils, for disadvantaged pupils, or for pupils who live in a particular place for only brief periods of time have been, for many years, typical examples. Education in them is free of charge and accessible to all.

Private schools are able to require the payment of school fees, which tend to be fairly high. When a school requests recognition and assimilation into the official school system, it must undertake, at primary level, to provide schooling free of charge.

Luxembourg

At the primary stage, there are currently four private denominational schools, and one non-denominational school. The Government in Council decides whether or not to grant subsidies. In principle, grants are to cover part of the school's running costs. Private schools charge an enrolment fee.

The Netherlands

The percentage of pupils in primary education enrolled in private schools (whether subsidised or not) is 68.8%. This can be broken down as follows: 29.2% in Protestant schools; 33.9% in Catholic schools; and 5.7% in neutral schools (taking their inspiration, for example, from humanist principles or the philosophy of Rudolph Steiner). Schools which use special teaching methods can be either public or private. Since 1917, both public and private schools have been financed 100% by public authorities, which guarantees that education is free. Private schools often have money coming in from parental contributions and can have their own funds.

Portugal

Private and co-operative schools can enter into different kinds of contracts with the state: contracts of association *(contrato de associação)*, simple contracts *(contrato simple)* and patronage contracts *(contrato de patrocinio)*. In the case of contracts of association, the state grants a subsidy to schools located in areas where there are not enough public schools. These schools guarantee among other things to provide education free of charge. The state enters into simple contracts in order to allow schools to offer special conditions of attendance such as a reduction in school fees. In the case of patronage contracts, the state is required to bear at least 50% of the school's running costs.

United Kingdom

In **England, Wales** and **Northern Ireland,** education can be provided in schools which are wholly financed, or partially financed or not financed at all by the public sector.

There are three categories of subsidised schools, each with a different kind of contract with the state: the voluntary aided schools, the voluntary controlled schools and the special agreement schools. Subsidised schools are reimbursed by the state for current expenses. They are not permitted to charge school fees.

There are two categories of independent schools: independent schools and colleges (they have several names, among them "public schools" and "preparatory schools") which receive no assistance from the State, and are funded by school fees and donations, and City Technology Colleges.

In **Scotland** there are two categories: the independent schools run by the private sector and seven subsidised (grant-aided) schools for children with sensory or physical impairment. The private schools have to cover all their expenses, generally by charging school fees. Some have income from donations. School fees can vary from school to school. The state can play a part in the case of schools which participate in the programme giving assistance to pupils (Assisted Places Scheme).

The subsidised schools get most of their finance from central government or from the education authorities who place children in them.

4.2. Trends in numbers in primary education

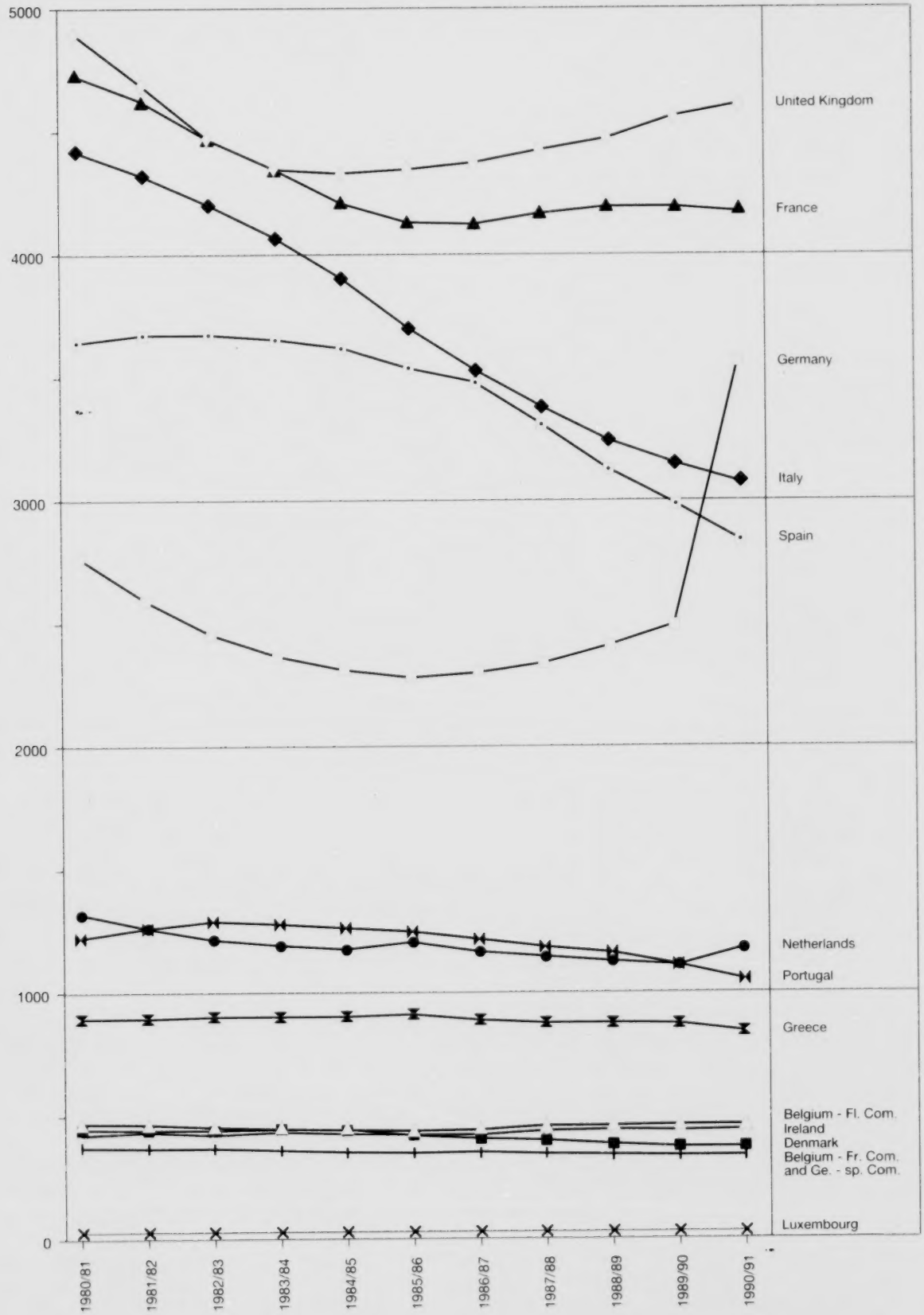
Trends in the school population of the European Union are shown in Graph 4. The statistical data include, as an aid to interpretation, the number of pupils enrolled in primary education over the past ten years. The statistics for pre-school are more difficult to establish.[1]

Trends in numbers are in the main closely related to demographic factors. In the majority of Member States, a tendency towards stability can be detected. In two countries, the considerable fall in the number of pupils in primary education is explained essentially by the fall in the birth-rate. Italy lost more than a million pupils between 1980 and 1991 and Spain more than 800 000 pupils in the same decade. A very slight fall in numbers in France and in Portugal is also to be noted.

A large increase in numbers in 1990/91 in Germany relates to the inclusion of the new *Länder* in the statistics.

[1] See the chapter on pre-school education.

Graph 4 : CHANGES IN NUMBERS OF PUPILS IN PRIMARY EDUCATION (000s)



5. Initial training of teachers

The length and level of initial training for teachers varies from country to country. In addition, the training of teachers for the pre-school stage is often distinct from that for the primary stage. Only Greece, Spain, France and the United Kingdom have opted for university-type training for teachers at these two stages. In Italy, the new law on the training of teachers also provides for the establishment of university studies for entry to the teaching profession.

5.1. The pre-school stage

To enter a course of training as a teacher at the pre-school stage, it is necessary to be in possession of a diploma or certificate of upper secondary education in almost all the Member States. In two countries, entry to training can be from the age of 15 or 16. In Italy, the diploma of the *Scuola Media* which relates to the lower cycle of the secondary school has been until now sufficient to enrol for training. In Germany, one must hold the certificate of the *Realschule* or an equivalent diploma. On the other hand, in France, a university *diplôme de licence* (involving three years of study) is demanded. In Denmark and in Germany, in addition to the certificate of upper secondary education, at least two years of professional experience or an equivalent qualification is required.

Pre-school teachers receive a qualifying diploma which is not of university level after 3, 4 or 5 years' study, except in Spain, Greece, France and the United Kingdom.

5.2. The primary stage

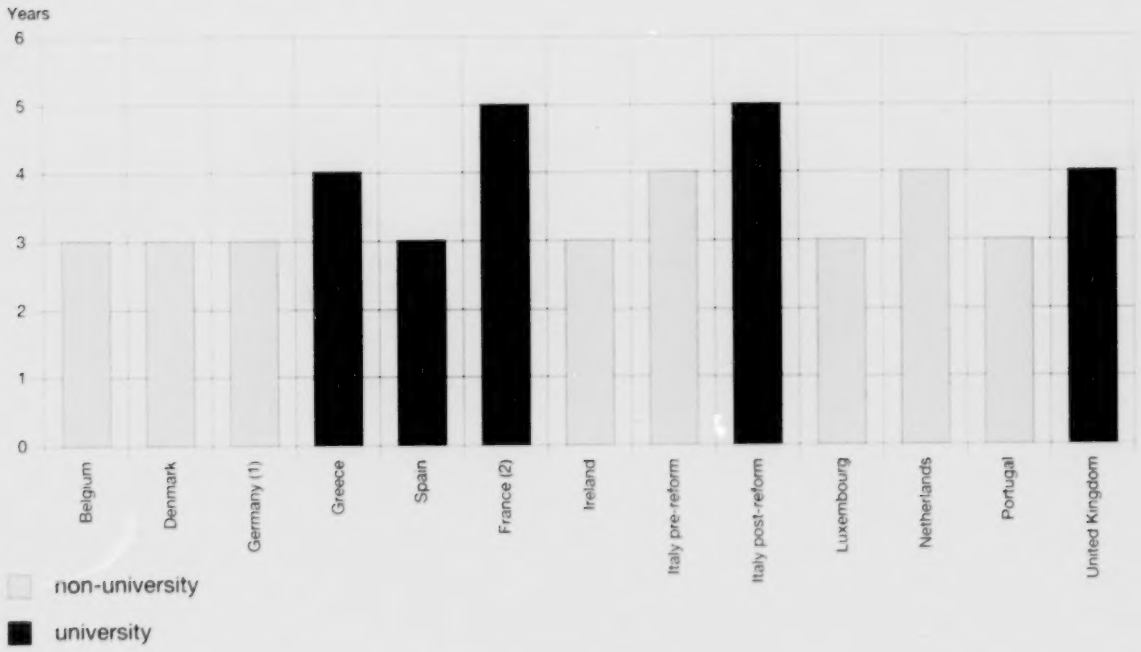
Students applying for teacher training at the primary stage must possess a minimum of a certificate of completion of secondary studies in all the Member States, except in Italy where only the certificate of the *Scuola Media* is at present required.

Training of primary school teachers is at university level in the majority of countries, except in Belgium, Denmark, Luxembourg, the Netherlands and Portugal. The reform passed in Italy provides that the training of teachers will be carried out in the universities from the academic year 1994/95.

Courses of study vary in length from country to country. Generally they last for 4 years but can involve only 3 or extend to 5. They very often involve school experience.

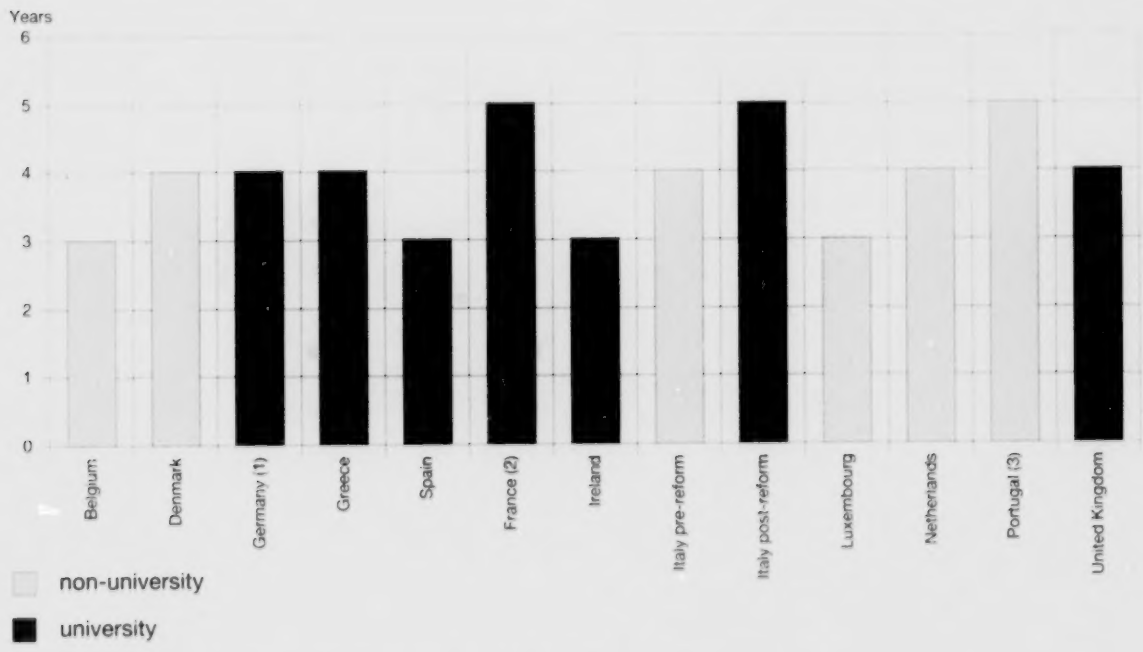
Graph 5 : LENGTH OF PERIOD OF INITIAL TEACHER TRAINING

a. Pre-school education



(1) Training at upper secondary education level; called *Erzieher* (educators).
(2) 3 years of university study followed by 2 years of teacher training in an *Institut Universitaire de Formation des Maîtres*.

b. Primary education



(1) 3 or 4 years of study and between 18 and 24 months of teaching practice thereafter.
(2) 3 years of university study followed by 2 years of teacher training in an *Institut Universitaire de Formation des Maîtres*.
(3) 3 years for the first phase and 4 or 5 years for the second phase.

Chapter II.

TIME SPENT IN SCHOOL IN PRIMARY EDUCATION

1. Distribution of school holidays

The school year generally begins in the month of September and finishes in the month of June. The length of the holidays varies from about 6 weeks (Germany, the Netherlands, England, Wales and Scotland) to 12 or 13 weeks (Greece, Spain and Ireland).

After the summer holidays, the start of the new school year extends over a period of about 6 weeks from the beginning of August (Denmark and sometimes some *Länder* of Germany) to the second fortnight in September (Spain, Italy and Portugal). In certain Member States the date of the start of the school year varies within the country itself (Germany, Spain, Italy, the Netherlands, Portugal and the United Kingdom).

The first term of the school year is lightened by a week's holiday towards the end of October or the beginning of November in most countries, except in Greece, Spain, Italy and Portugal where the school year begins at the end of the month of September. There is another holiday period everywhere for about 2 weeks at the end of the month of December.

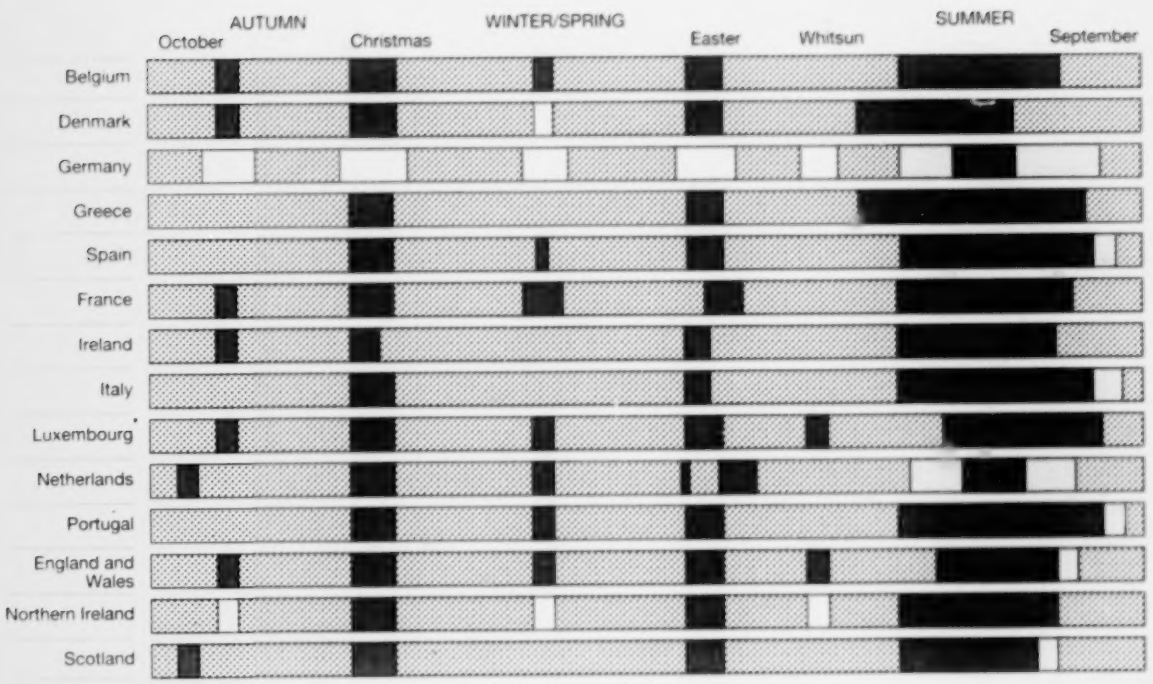
At the end of winter, almost all pupils in the European Union have a short break from their school activities. This interruption, which can vary in duration from a single day to 2 weeks between January and March, does not exist in Greece, Ireland and Italy.

At Easter, the holidays are traditionally longer: about 15 days. In the Netherlands and France, this holiday period for children is not made to coincide with the religious festival of Easter.

In some countries of the European Union, children have the benefit of a final holiday period during the third school term. In Luxembourg and the United Kingdom (except Scotland), the pattern of school-work is interrupted for a week, and in Germany, depending on the *Land*, by up to 11 days.

Graph 6 : DISTRIBUTION OF SCHOOL HOLIDAYS OVER THE YEAR (1993/94)

Primary schools



Holidays

Regional variations

School time

Range of dates of beginning and end of school year

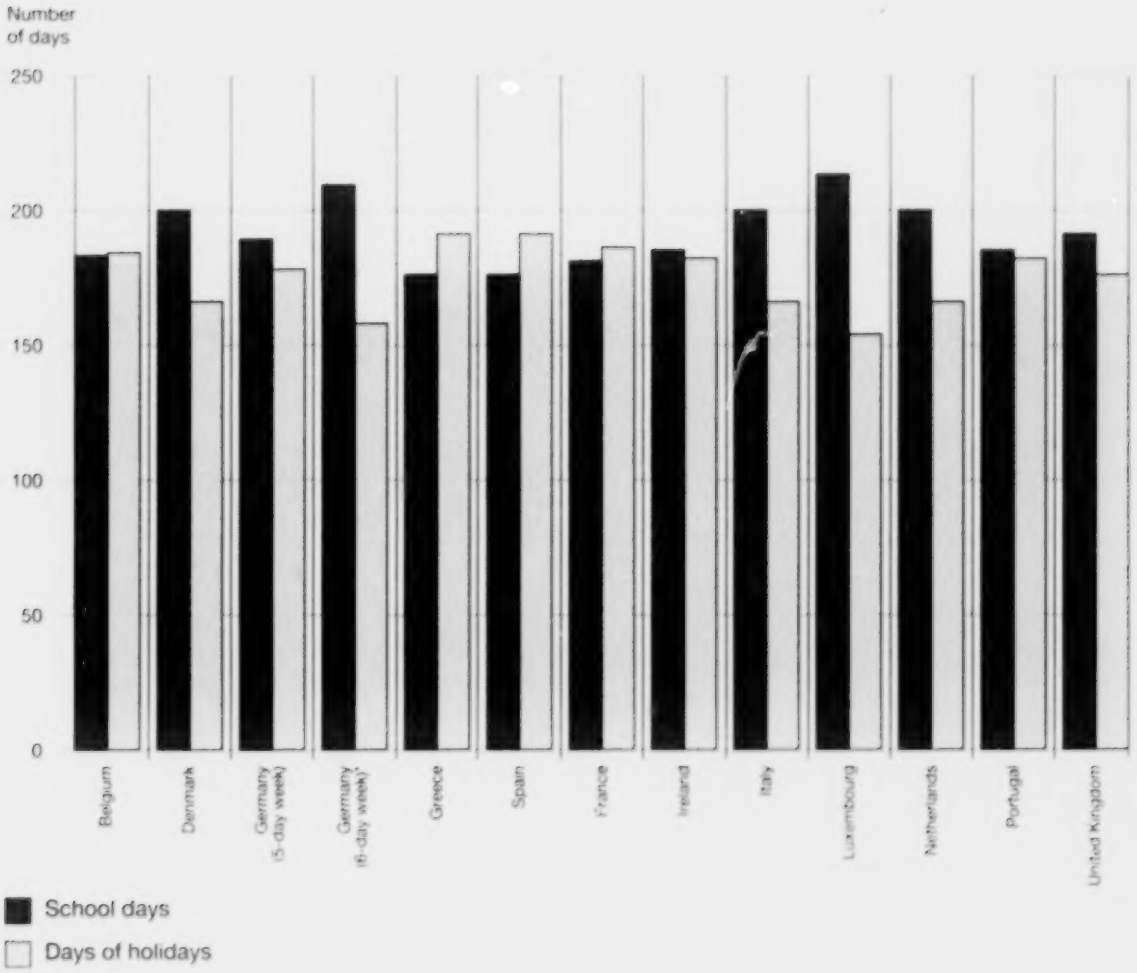
22

2. School days and holidays in the calendar year

The number of school days in the year, officially laid down by Member States, varies from country to country. As Graph 7 shows, pupils attend school for 175 days per year in Greece and Spain. On the other hand, in Luxembourg they are in class for 212 days in the year.

These figures, however, are not very meaningful, for, as the following explanation makes clear, they can refer to half-days as well as to whole days. Internal variations are also to be found in the same Member State. This is the case, for example, with Germany and Italy, where two different forms of weekly timetable coexist, affecting the number of teaching days in the year.

Graph 7 : DIVISION OF THE SCHOOL YEAR AS BETWEEN SCHOOL DAYS AND HOLIDAYS
Primary schools



* These data correspond to a 6-day week where lessons take place on every other Saturday.

3. Patterns of schooling within the week

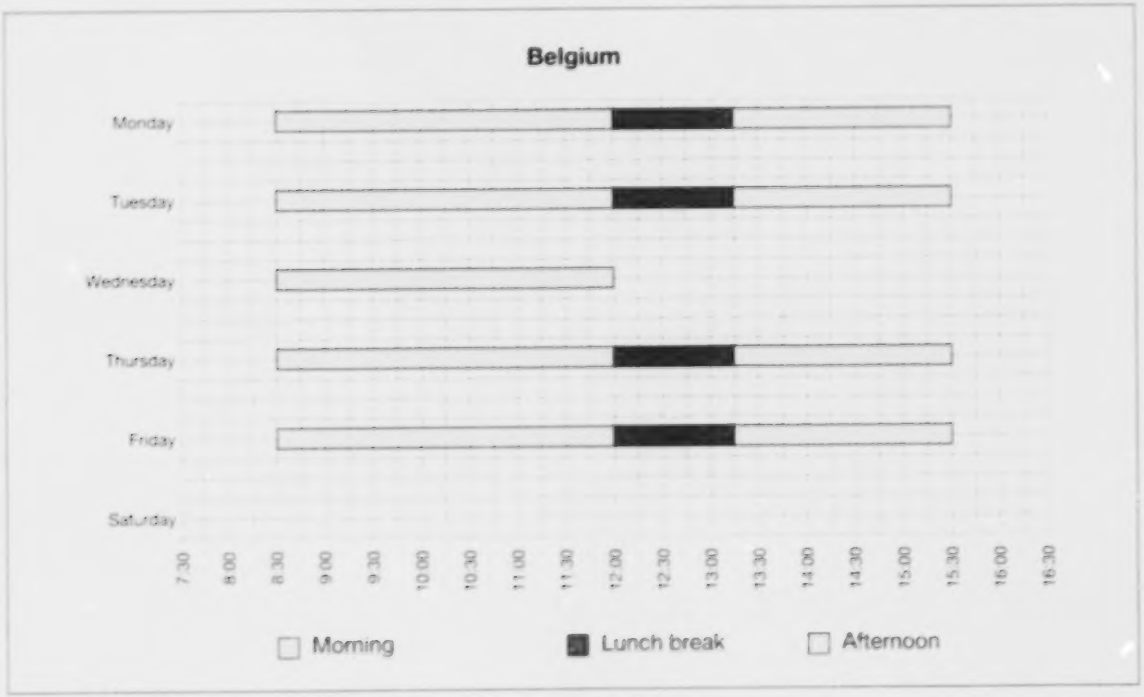
The range of patterns of schooling within the week in the countries of the European Union is illustrated country by country in Graphs 8. It can immediately be seen that the most common school week consist of 5 days, except in Luxembourg where the weekly pattern is kept at 6 days. In two other countries, schools can choose a system of 5 or 6 days per week. In Italy Law No. 148/90 permits a division of teaching activities into either a 5-day or a 6-day week. Of the two options, the 6-day week is the more common. In Germany, too, the 5-day week coexists with the 6-day week. In the latter case, however, several Saturdays in the month may be free.

In the organisation of the 5-day week, school activities run from Monday to Friday, except in France where Wednesday is a whole holiday and children are taught on Saturday mornings.

In some countries the teaching timetable varies from day to day. In Belgium and the Netherlands, there are no classes on Wednesday afternoons. In Luxembourg, the pattern of the week is marked by the alternation of 3 whole days and 3 mornings.

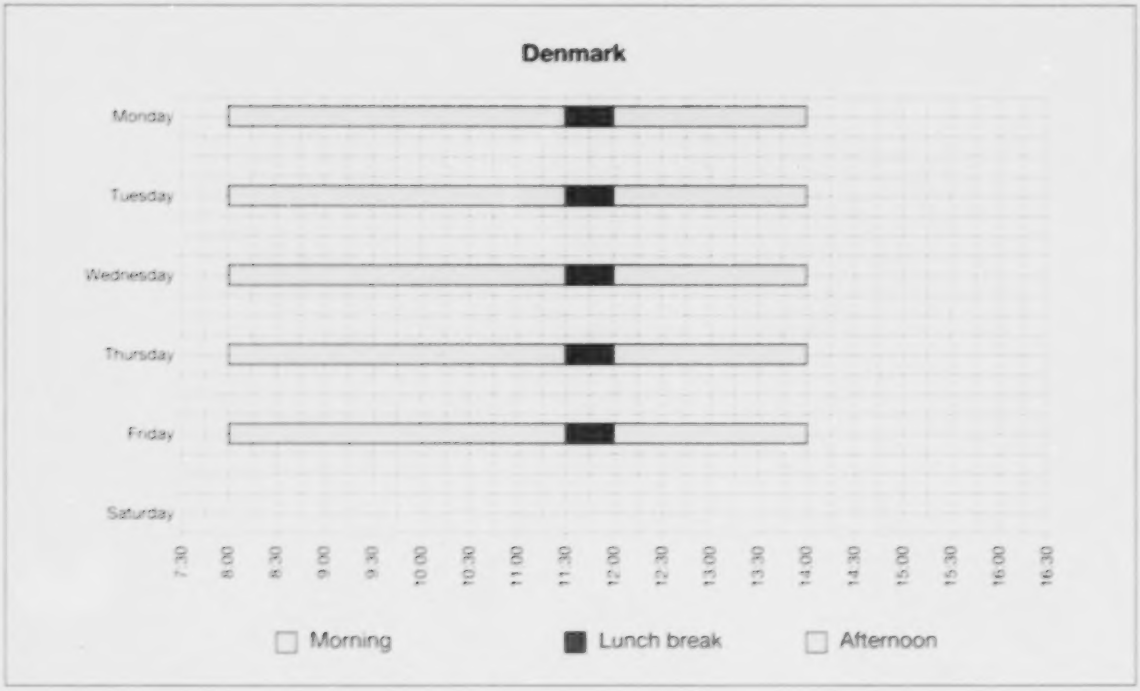
Teaching time within the week at the primary stage can be determined either by a minimum number of teaching periods or by the total of teaching hours each day. On the other hand, the length of a teaching period is, in some countries, decided by the teachers themselves. The length of a teaching period can vary from 40 to 60 minutes.

Graph 8 : PATTERNS OF SCHOOLING WITHIN THE WEEK
Primary schools



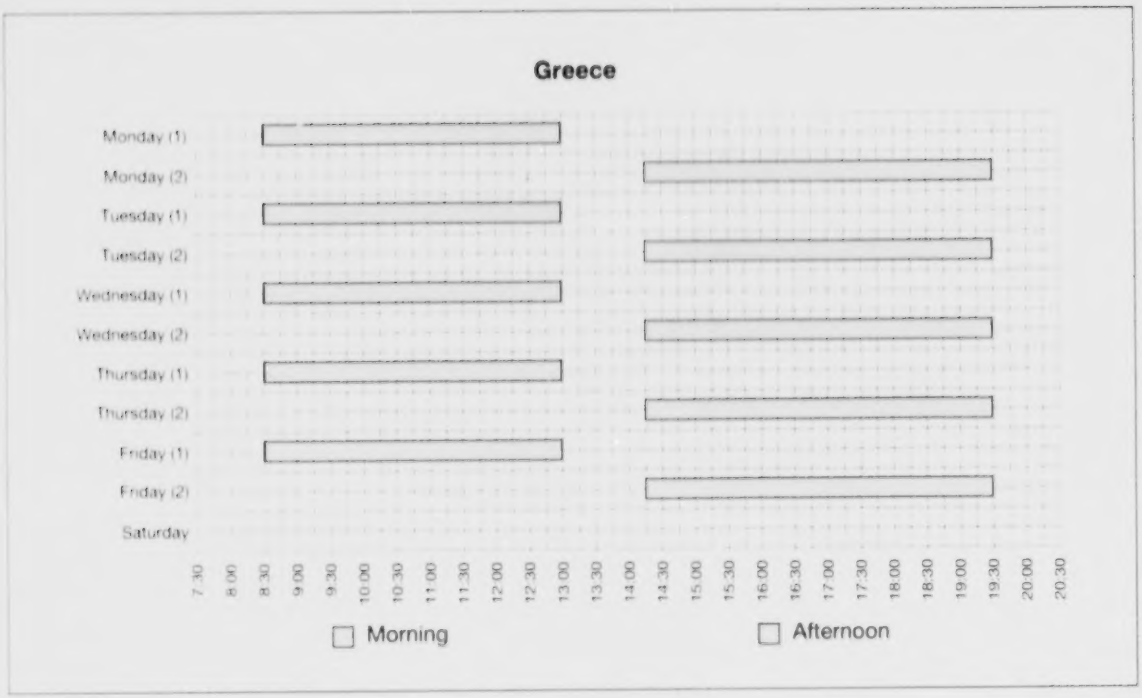
Starting and finishing times vary according to the Community (see Graph 9).

24

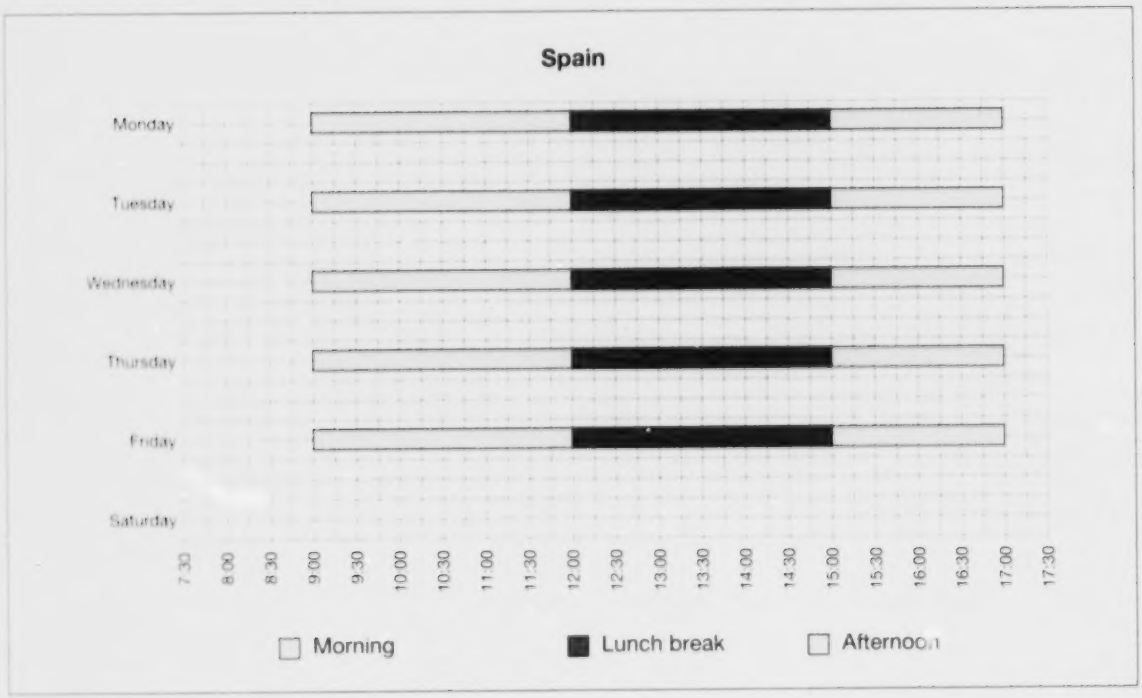


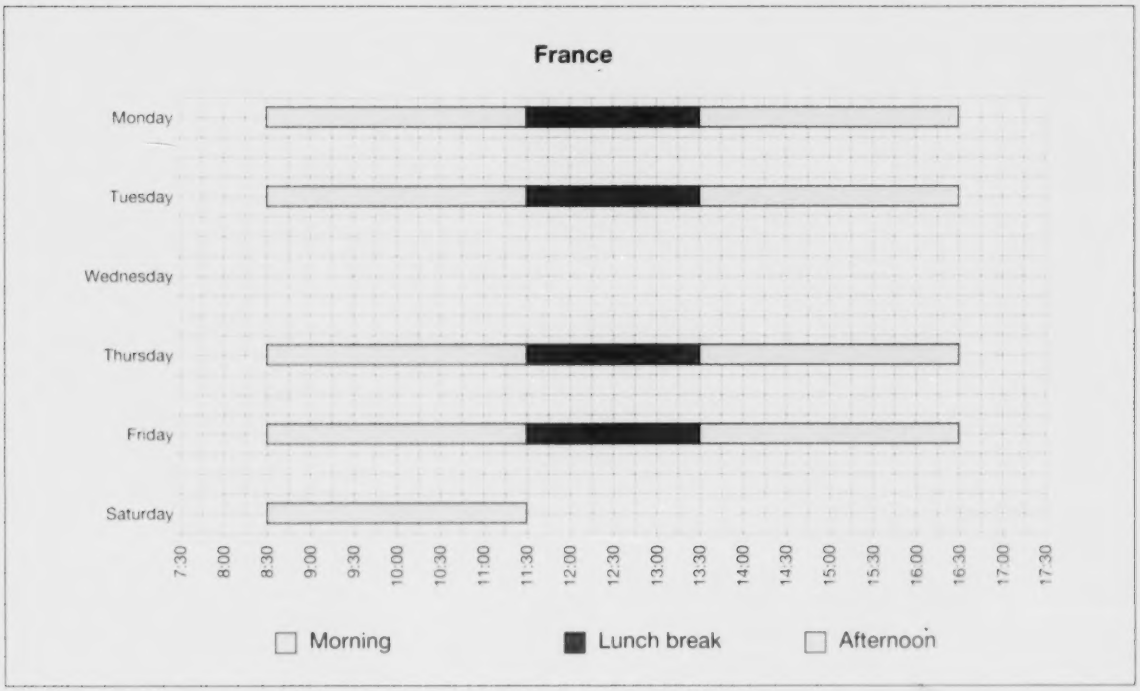
This diagram shows the position in the senior classes.

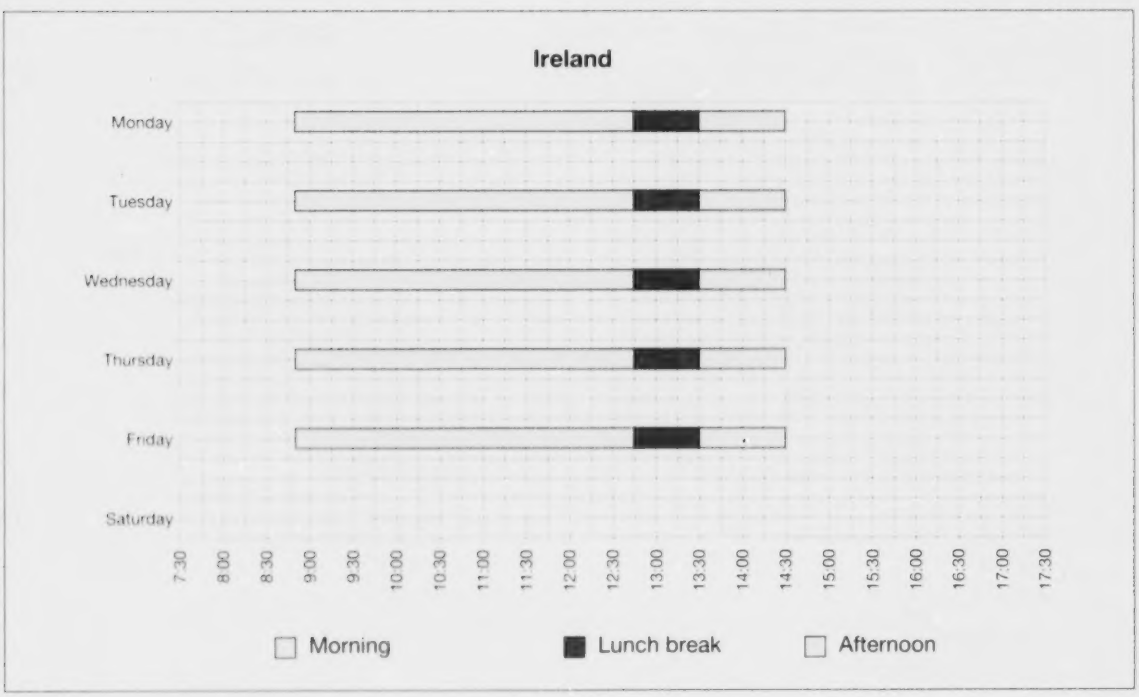
(1) In *Lander* with the 6-day week system, classes may be held on one or more Saturday mornings in the month.



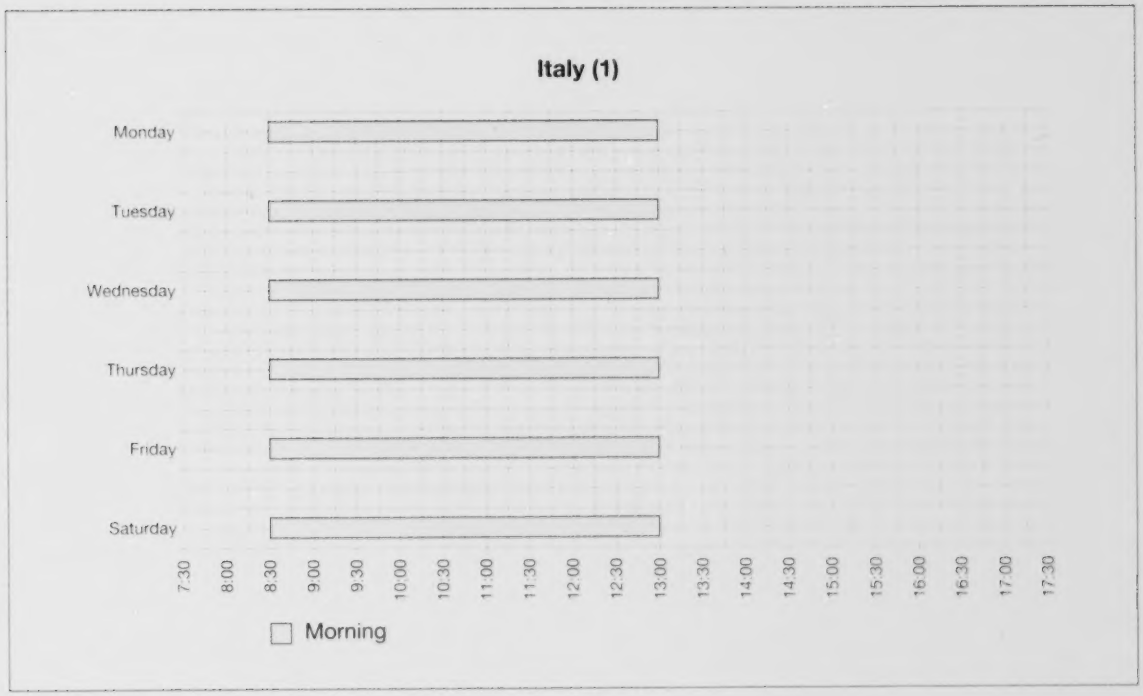
Two-shift system : pupils attend school in the morning (1) or the afternoon (2).



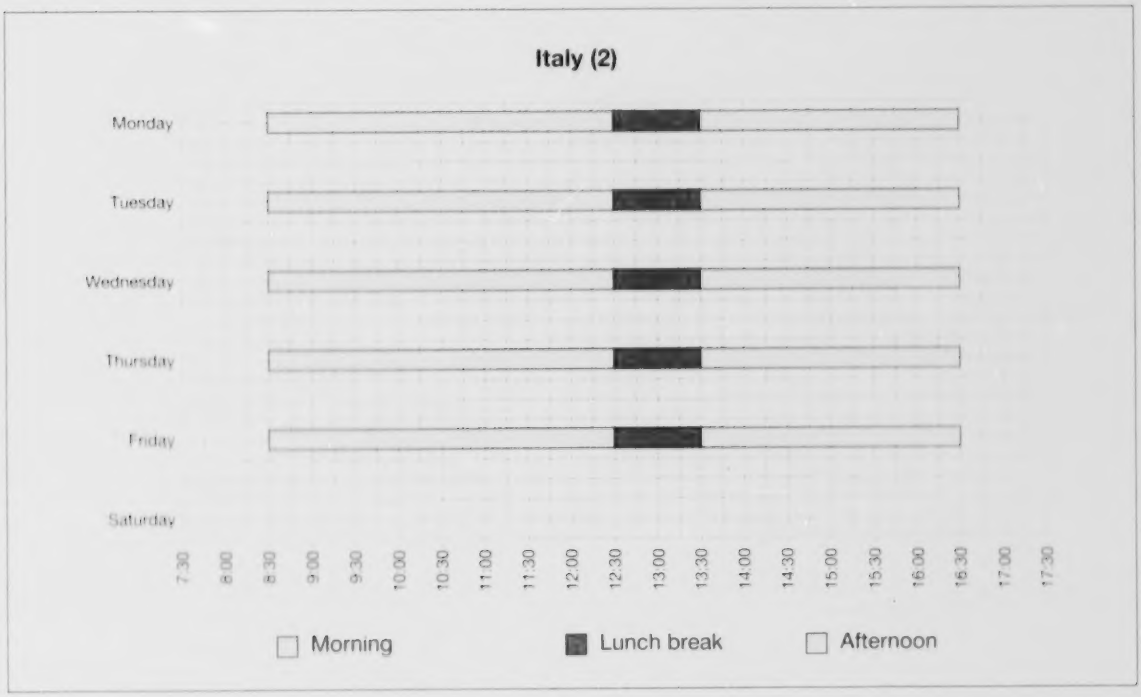

France
Monday
Tuesday
Wednesday
Thursday
Friday
Saturday
7:30
8:00
8:30
9:00
9:30
10:00
10:30
11:00
11:30
12:00
12:30
13:00
13:30
14:00
14:30
15:00
15:30
16:00
16:30
17:00
17:30
Morning
Lunch break
Afternoon


Ireland
Monday
Tuesday
Wednesday
Thursday
Friday
Saturday
7:30
8:00
8:30
9:00
9:30
10:00
10:30
11:00
11:30
12:00
12:30
13:00
13:30
14:00
14:30
15:00
15:30
16:00
16:30
17:00
17:30
Morning
Lunch break
Afternoon

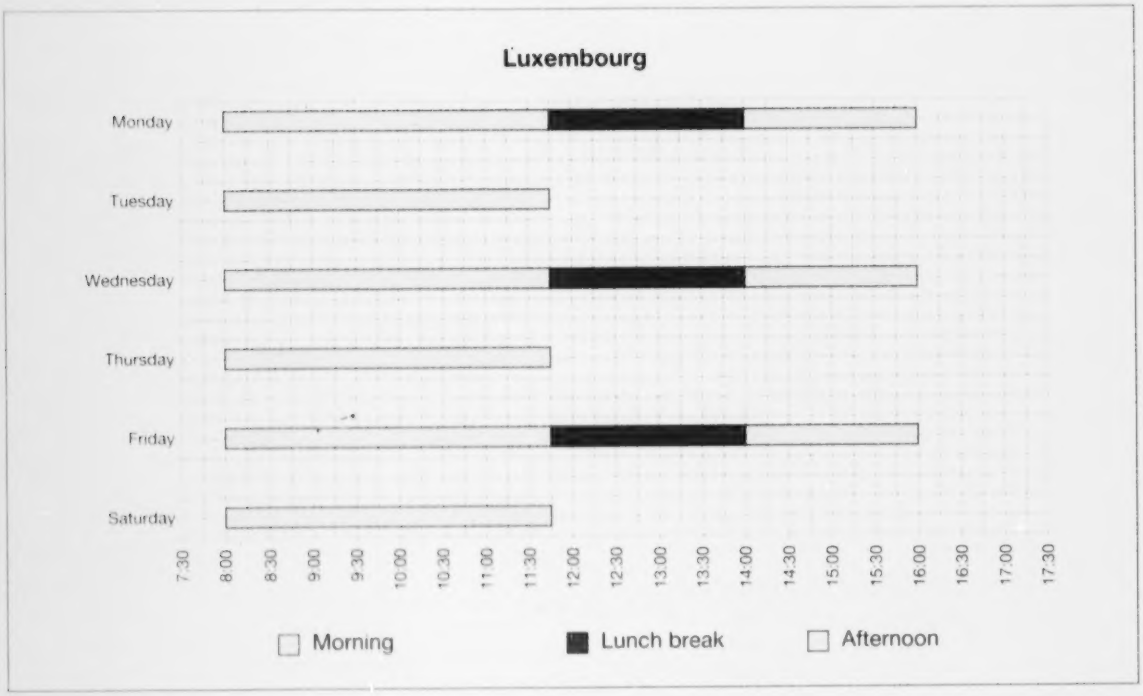
27

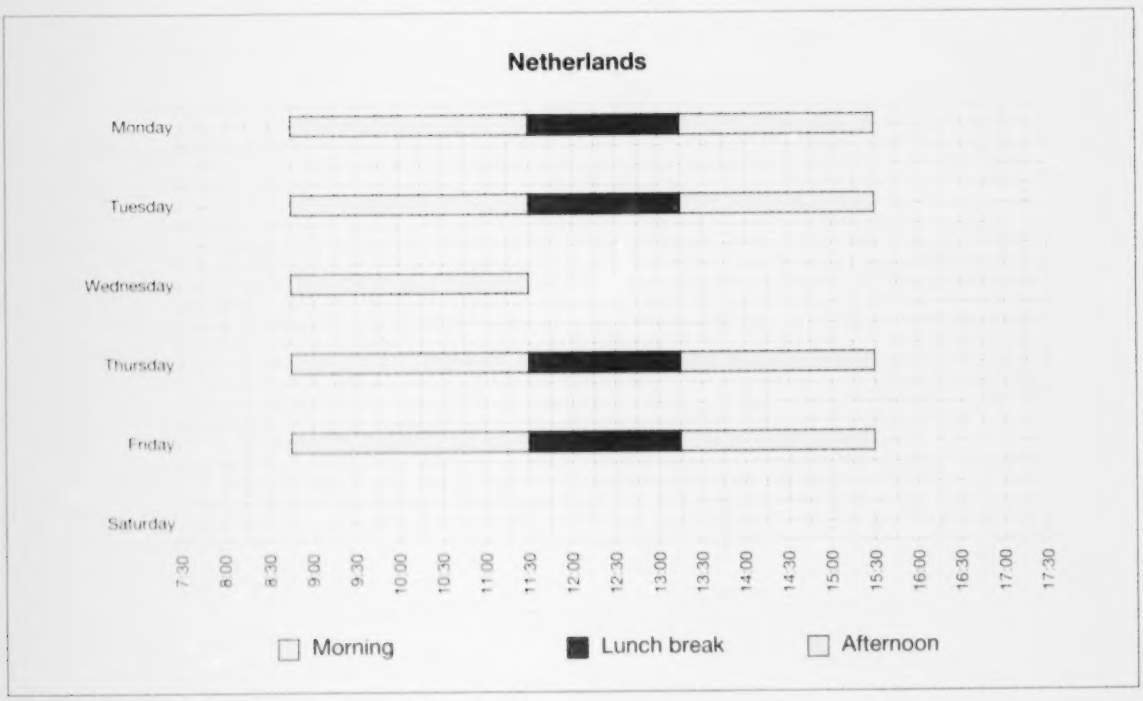


(1) Half-day school system, 6-day week.
In some regions, courses resume in the afternoon once or twice a week.

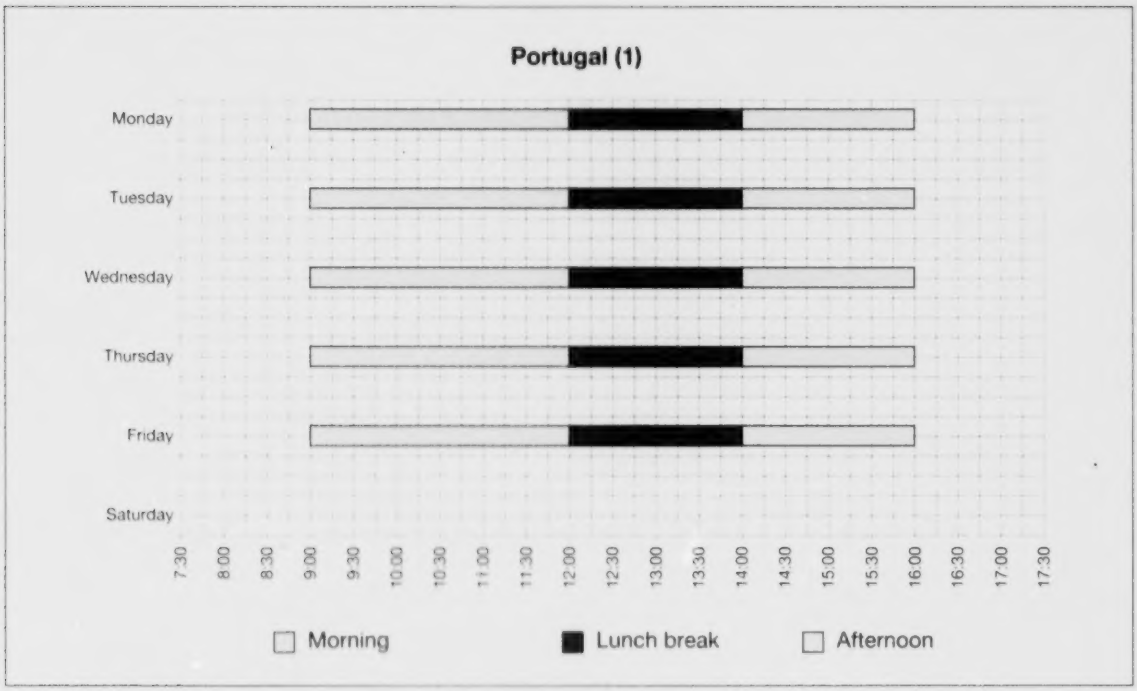


(2) Extended timetable, 5-day week.

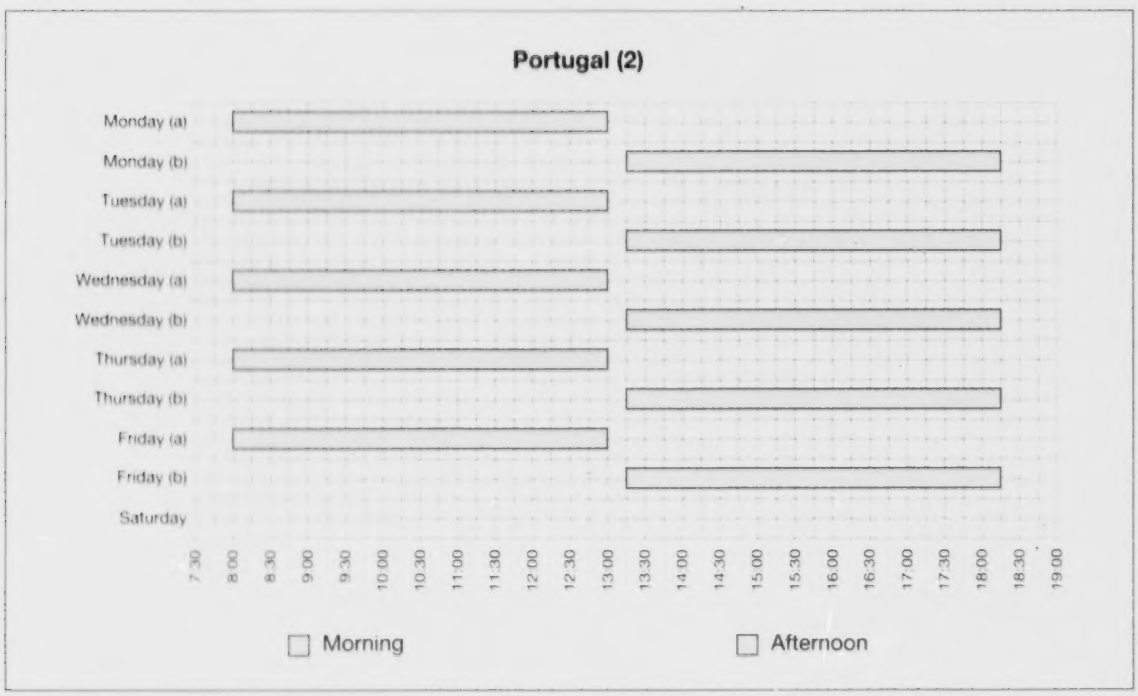




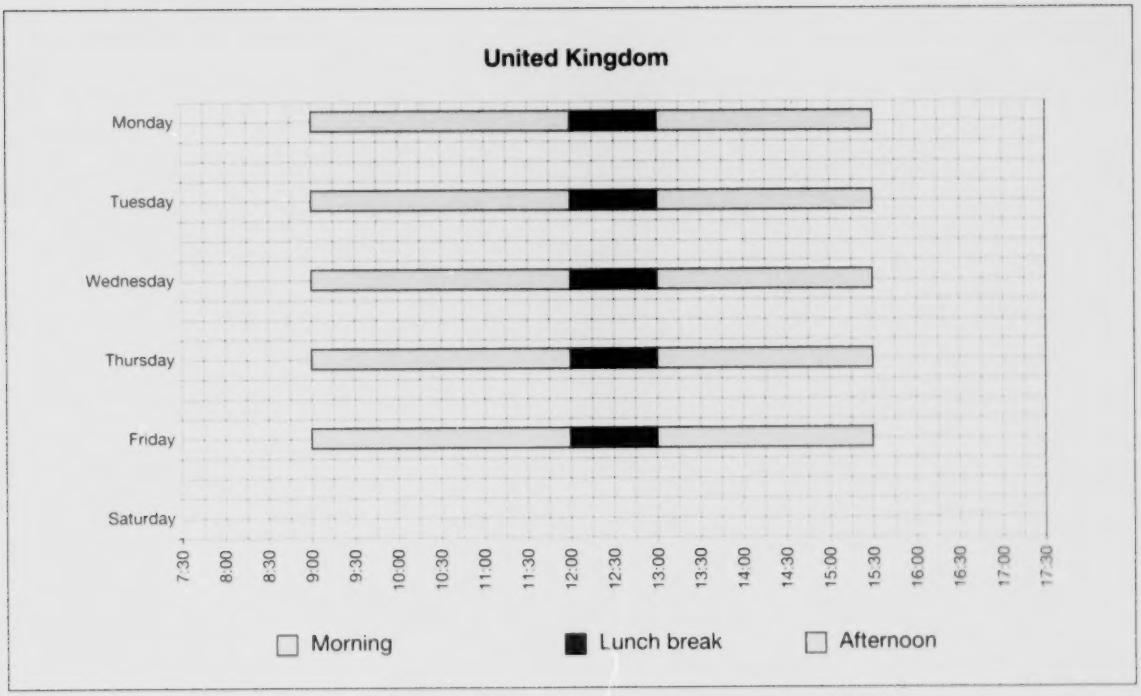
This diagram shows the position in the first four years of primary school.



(1) Single-shift system, 5-day week.



(2) Two-shift system, pupils attend school in the morning (a) or the afternoon (b).



Beginning and end of the lunch break vary (see Graph 9).

4. Teaching time in the school day

The timetable of a school day can vary enormously from one Member State to another. Pupils in Germany, Portugal, Greece and certain regions of Italy have classes for half a day, generally in the morning. In Greece and Portugal, school activities are planned according to the availability of buildings. Some pupils have classes in the morning, others in the afternoon.

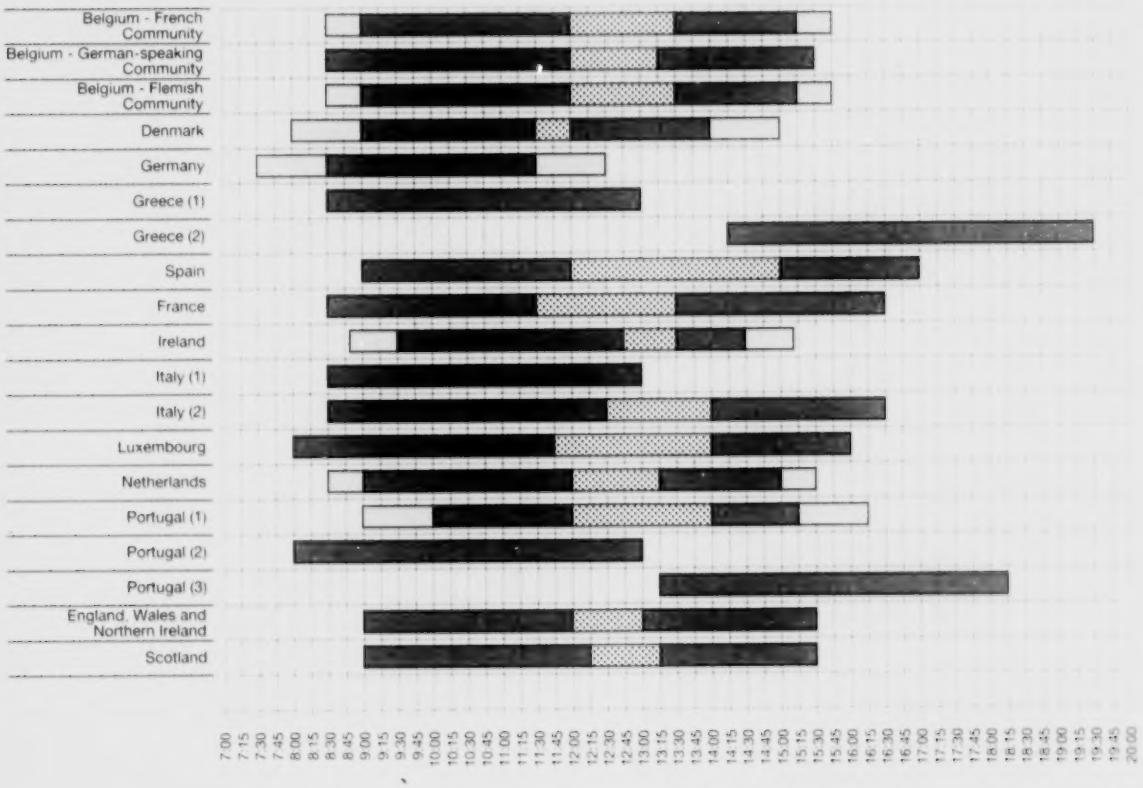
Full-time teaching, with a break in the middle of the day, is another form of school timetable. The majority of the countries of the European Union have adopted this organisation of the day, but, as Graph 9 shows, the break can be very short or, on the other hand, it can extend over several hours.

European pupils start their school day between 8 a.m. and 9 a.m., apart from some *Länder* in Germany where school can begin at 7.30 a.m. In Portugal, on the other hand, the school council can set school opening time at between 9 a.m. and 10 a.m.

32

Graph 9 :- LESSON TIME DURING THE SCHOOL DAY

Primary Schools


Belgium - French Community
Belgium - German-speaking Community
Belgium - Flemish Community
Denmark
Germany
Greece (1)
Greece (2)
Spain
France
Ireland
Italy (1)
Italy (2)
Luxembourg
Netherlands
Portugal (1)
Portugal (2)
Portugal (3)
England, Wales and Northern Ireland
Scotland
7.00 7.15 7.30 7.45 8.00 8.15 8.30 8.45 9.00 9.15 9.30 9.45 10.00 10.15 10.30 10.45 11.00 11.15 11.30 11.45 12.00 12.15 12.30 12.45 13.00 13.15 13.30 13.45 14.00 14.15 14.30 14.45 15.00 15.15 15.30 15.45 16.00 16.15 16.30 16.45 17.00 17.15 17.30 17.45 18.00 18.15 18.30 18.45 19.00 19.15 19.30 19.45 20.00

- Lessons - morning
- Lunch break
- Lessons - afternoon
- Starting and finishing times variable

33

5. Number of teaching hours per year

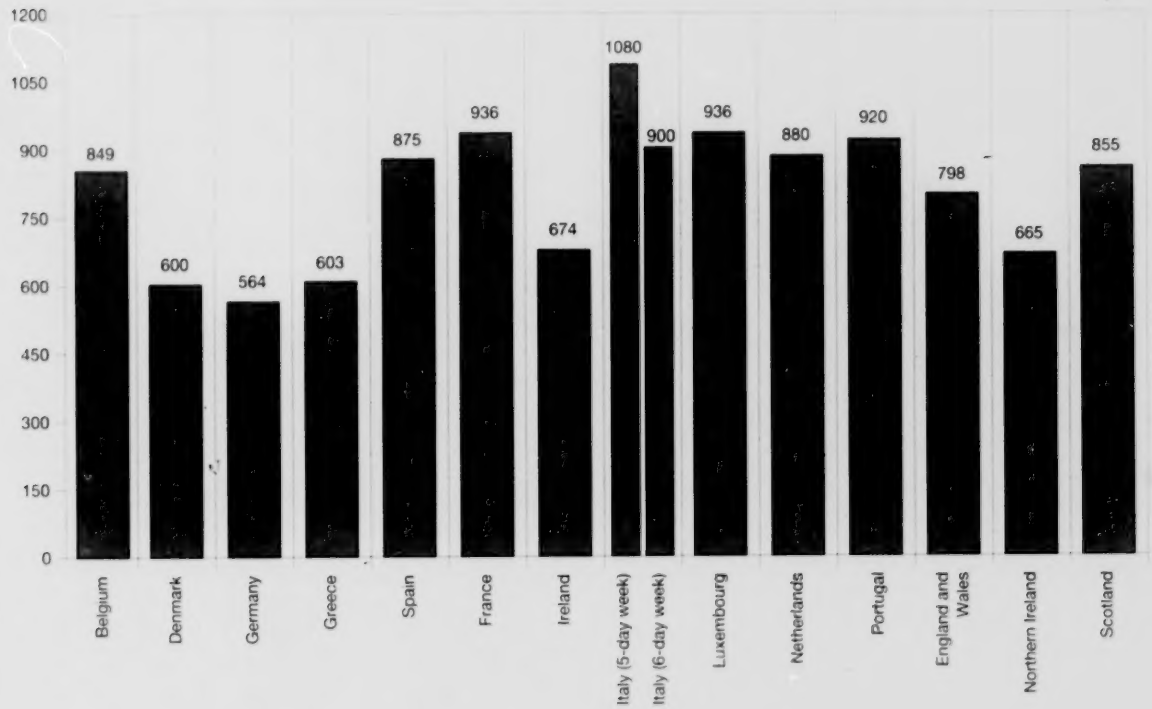
Although there is great variability in patterns of schooling to be observed in the countries of the European Union, the calculation of the number of teaching hours per year, when carried out for each country, permits information to obtained which allows a precise comparison of the time spent by pupils in school. This yearly teaching load, illustrated in Graph 10, is calculated by taking as a starting point either the number of hours per week or the number of periods multiplied by the period length to obtain the weekly load. This figure is then divided by the number of days per week and multiplied by the number of school days in the year.

In Belgium, Spain, France, Luxembourg, Italy and Portugal, the time spent by children in school is the same throughout their primary education. On the other hand, other countries have adopted a lighter teaching timetable for young children at the beginning of compulsory education. In this latter case, the number of lessons varies in proportion to the pupils' age. For this reason, the number of teaching hours per year has been calculated at two points in the process of primary education: at about age 6-7 and about 9-10. The tables setting out the methods of calculation for the two age-groups are provided in Annex II.

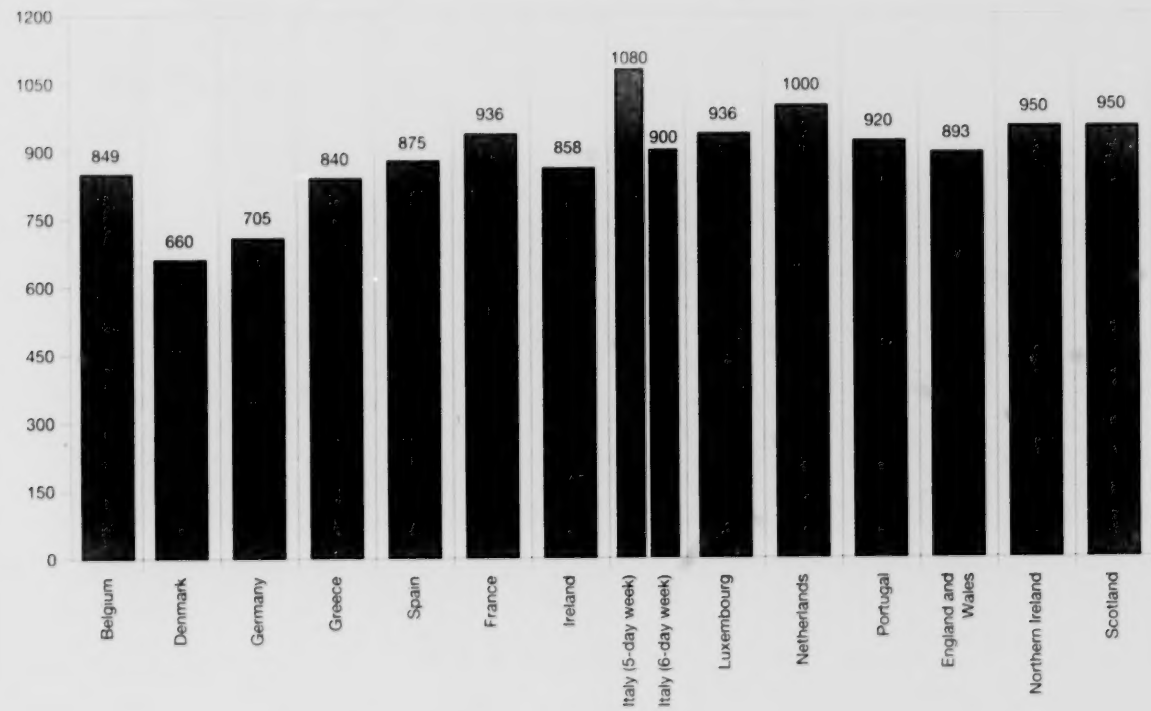
Graph 10 shows large variations among some Member States which can mean that there are twice the number of hours in one that there are in another. This occurs particularly at the beginning of compulsory education. In Germany, pupils aged 6 are in class for about 564 hours, while in Italy, at the same age they are there for approximately 1080 hours.

Graph 10 : ANNUAL TEACHING TIME (in hours) IN PRIMARY SCHOOLS

a. At the beginning of schooling (about age 6)



b. At a later stage (about age 9)



35

Chapter III.

PROVISION FOR PUPILS IN PRIMARY SCHOOLS OUT OF SCHOOL HOURS

1. Social context

The care of children outside the time when they have to be in school is currently a topic of debate in several Member States. In particular, in the present social and economic climate, schools providing pre-school and primary education have been expected to take on an increasing role in providing for and supervising young people outside regular teaching hours.

In most European countries, the problem of caring for children out of school hours is especially important in the context of the growth in the number of women in employment. The proportion of women who combine employment with raising children under the age of ten, however, varies greatly among the Member States of the European Union.

Table 3 : The percentage of women in employment who are raising a child under the age of 10

	B	DK	D	GR	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	P	UK	EC
In 1988 (of which P/T)	54 (16)	79 (32)	38 (21)	41 (5)	28 (4)	56 (16)	23 (7)	42 (5)	38 (10)	32 (27)	62 (4)	46 (32)	44 (17)
Change between 1985 and 1988	+ 2.8	+ 2.6	+ 2.6	+ 3.8	/	+ 1.3	+ 5.1	+ 3.6	+ 3.7	+ 8.2	/	+ 7.5	/

Source : Labour Force Survey, Eurostat, 1988.

When both parents work, their requirement is both for a place where their young children can be taken care of during school holidays and for responsibility to be taken for their children for a longer period of time during the day. This requirement is particularly great at the moment, because an increase in the number of women in employment has very often been accompanied by a breakdown in traditional family structures. Often, young parents can no longer count on the resources of an extended family. For single-parent families, taking care of the children can present still greater problems.

In education systems which allow parents to choose a school and in which there is strong competition among schools, the availability of nurseries or activities out of school hours can become an important issue in the decision to enrol the child in one school rather than another.

This document addresses the problems of providing care for children outside teaching hours solely from the perspective of the educational system. What positions have schools adopted to meet this requirement in the different countries in the European Union? What are the most common practices? How are these periods of supervision integrated into the general organisation of school time? It should, however, be remembered that schools do not respond to all needs and that the services which they provide are integrated in systems of measures with varying degrees of co-ordination, which are not analysed in detail here.

Table 4 : The social context which has led to the organisation of provision for pupils out of school hours

	B	DK	D	GR	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	P	UK	
												Engl. Wales N.I.	Scot.
Both parents work	*	*	*	*	*	*		*	*	*	*		*
Education policy		*	*	*	*	*		*		*		*	

Source : Labour Force Survey, Eurostat, 1988.

Certain initiatives have been taken at local level, as funds (public and/or private) have become available. In some countries, it is the national public authorities which have taken measures to support provision for children outside school hours and the whole organisation of school time has sometimes been altered.

If society sets itself the goal of supporting a greater equality of opportunity from the earliest age, it is necessary to investigate the inequalities in access to services offered outside the hours of compulsory schooling. In general, in this provision it is not only a matter of being concerned with the physical well-being of the children, but also of offering educational services of quality to the greatest possible number of them. Certain services are offered primarily to children who live in difficult social circumstances.

National data on social context

Belgium

In the three Communities, it is primarily the fact that both parents work that has led schools to provide for children outside teaching hours. These care arrangements can make schools attractive and encourage parents to enrol their children in them.

Denmark

Recreation centres and the out of school *Skolefritidsordninger - SFO* were first created to respond to parents' need for a system to provide for their youngest children. This development was greater during the 1960s, when there was an increase in the number of women in the labour force.

The *SFO* project is innovative in its aim to provide greater coherence to the school's taking of responsibility for children by increasing the co-operation between schools and other organisations offering this type of care.

Germany

Several features have contributed to the development of provision out of school hours:

- the change in family structure, i.e. the greater frequency of only children and single mothers and fathers;
- the changing labour force with a growing number of employed women (in 1990, 54% of women were employed);
- the new desire of women to reconcile family and work, professional activity and the education of their children;
- the social conditions which provide less motivation for a large number of children and young people.

These social changes call for the reinforcement of educational attitudes which take account of the new living conditions of children and young people and which utilise the gaps in the provision of education and training in terms of content and timetable (morning school) to create improved school programmes with a higher educational content extending over the whole day.

In this context, those responsible for education in the old *Länder* tend to advocate all-day schools, fixed hours and family-style activities in the afternoon. The new *Länder*, for their part, find themselves caught up in a process of restructuring and re-evaluating concepts and methods related to the organisation of education.

Indeed, according to a report published in February 1993 by the Standing Conference of the Ministers of Education and Cultural Affairs, a large part of the population now wishes that the care of pupils should be organised by the schools and the support services for young people, both public and private.

Previously, the care of pupils outside of class hours had been considered a family responsibility.

Nurseries, whether outside or in schools, have their own socio-educational function and aim to complement and support the education provided by the family.

Greece

In the large cities, there is a recognised need to set up centres offering provision outside school hours for children with working parents. The goal of the Ministry of Education and Religious Affairs is to provide for the education and personal development of children within a school environment, but with the assistance of their families. This educational programme has so far built up a good reputation and will soon be introduced in other establishments.

Spain

The supplementary services respond to the needs of society. They make it easier for women to become involved in active life and guarantee education of a higher quality. The introduction of extra-curricular activities responds to the desires of parents who wish their children to become familiar with subjects not offered in school.

France

Study periods before and after class have been arranged in some schools to provide for pupils whose parents work. For children in nursery schools, in particular, provision is organised in leisure centres by local groups and associations.

The purpose of the contracts to organise children's time and the "city-children contracts" is to manage the time of children in nursery and primary schools over the day and the week in a rich, yet balanced, fashion.

Ireland

No provision is made.

Italy

Schools must take care of some children before normal opening time. Generally, both parents work and cannot count on the assistance of other family members to accompany the pupils to school at the normal time. This problem especially affects low and moderate income families, who cannot afford to hire someone to take care of their children in their absence.

In addition, an increasing number of families wish their children to stay at school during the afternoon. At the same time, the number of subjects taught in primary school has increased. As a consequence, the system of classes on 6 mornings a week is beginning to disappear.

Luxembourg

Structures for making provision for children, along with a meals service during the lunch break, have been created to meet the needs of parents who, because of the demands of their work, cannot guarantee to look after them at this point. According to need, the communes can also offer a care service on the free afternoons of Tuesdays and Thursdays, as well as after school hours.

The Netherlands

Up to the present, provision for children out of school hours has not received much attention. In the light of the way society is developing, it is clear that the demand for provision out of school hours will grow. Good services will have to be established for children who have two working parents, not only at the primary school stage but also at the secondary stage. More attention will have to be paid to helping children with their homework. Efforts will have to be made in the direction of cooperation and harmonization between neighbouring organisations.

Portugal

Arrangements have been set up to provide pupils with things to do between the end of classes and the time they can return home to join their family.

United Kingdom

In **England, Wales** and **Northern Ireland** provision for pupils outside of school hours is considered either as a social service for children with special needs (in which case the local authorities must organise them) or as a way to enhance educational or leisure activities (in which case their implementation is optional). Parents are entitled by law to choose a school for their children. Consequently, one of the factors which parents take into consideration in making their decision is whether or not the school organises activities for pupils outside hours.

In **Scotland**, it is not usual to find provision for children outside school hours. Where some schools have organised such provision, it is likely to reflect problems of travelling between home and school. Provision can also be made to help families in which both parents work or quite simply to complement school activities. To enhance the relatively small provision of care for children, some public schools situated in deprived areas have already set up schemes of this kind.

2. Opening of schools outside teaching hours

Discussion of out of schools hours provision cannot be contemplated without taking into account the different ways in which school time is organised currently in Member States of the European Union. The problem is a different one when school activities are spread over the whole day and when they only take up half a day. Graph 11 combines the information on teaching time in a typical school day provided in Chapter II and information about school opening hours.

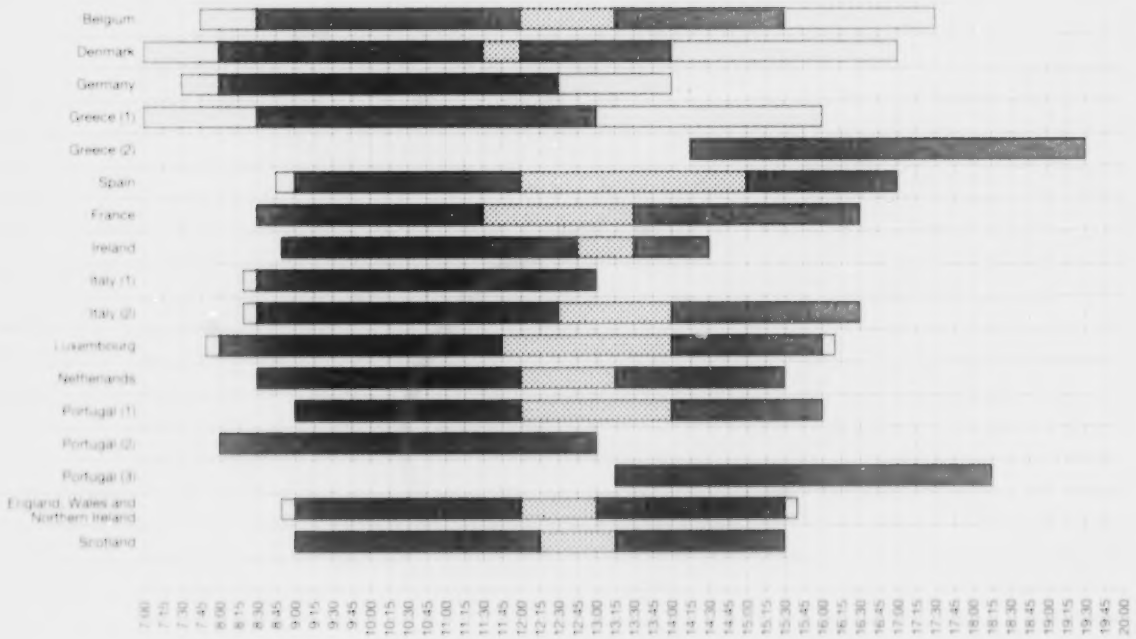
There is great diversity among the different educational systems. In addition, even within the same country, several different ways of organising time can exist. In Belgium, Denmark, Germany (in some schools) and Greece, the schools can accommodate children more than half an hour before class begin. In the majority of countries, however, the school opens its doors shortly before the beginning of classes. In Ireland and Scotland there are no arrangements for accommodating children in the morning before school.

The length of the lunch break is also very variable from country to country. In some cases (Spain, France and Luxembourg) classes are interrupted for two hours or more. In other countries where there are generally no classes in the afternoon (Denmark, Germany and Greece), responsibility for children must be taken within other structures. In Portugal, under the all-day school system, the lunch break is at least one hour and at most two hours long.

Finally, in some countries, there is a structure of after-school provision on school premises or elsewhere. Such arrangements, with some rare exceptions, do not exist in Ireland, Luxembourg or Scotland. In Spain, classes finish at 5 p.m. There is no provision for pupils after classes. In Germany, the *Länder* are extending the offer of provision in the primary school. For example, schools more and more offer fixed timetables from 7.30 a.m. to 1 p.m. or 2 p.m. Primary schools which operate during the whole day are rare.

Graph 11 : SCHOOLS' OPENING HOURS

Primary schools



- Lessons - morning
- Lunch break
- Lessons - afternoon
- Out-of-hours provision (in Germany, only in some schools)

Table 5 : Supervision outside of school hours (within or outside of the school) at the primary stage

Note: The information provided here refers to the most common situation in a particular country. Other types of arrangement may also exist.

	School week	Morning	Lunch-time	After school	Shorter time-table for younger pupils
Belgium	M, T, 1/2W, T, F	1hr	1-11/2hrs (except W)	11/2-21/2hrs	
Denmark	1/2M, 1/2T, 1/2W, 1/2T, 1/2F	1hr	1/2hr	3 or 4hrs	yes
Germany	1/2M, 1/2T, 1/2W, 1/2T, 1/2F (1/2S)	1/2hr in some schools		yes, in full-time schools, nurseries or similar organisations	yes
Greece	1/2M, 1/2T, 1/2W, 1/2T, 1/2F	11/4 hrs		(4hrs)	yes
Spain	M, T, W, T, F	1/4hr	3hrs		
France	M, T, T, F, 1/2S	variable	2hrs (exc. S)	variable	
Ireland	M, T, W, T, F	no	3/4hr	no	yes
Italy (example)	1/2M, T, 1/2W, T, 1/2F	10 mins minimum	11/2hrs	yes, in extended timetable	
Luxembourg	M, 1/2T, W, 1/2T, F, 1/2S	10 mins	2hrs (exc. T, Th, S)	10 mins	
The Netherlands (example)	M, T, 1/2W, T, F	variable	1hr or more for the youngest (not W)	variable	yes
Portugal[3]	M, T, W, T, F, (S)	variable	1-2 hrs		yes
United Kingdom England, Wales and Northern Ireland	M, T, W, T, F	10 mins	1hr	10 mins	yes
United Kingdom Scotland	M, T, W, T, F	no	1hr	no	yes

[1] In Germany teaching can be organised over 5 days or over 6 with no classes on a number of Saturdays in the month. A few schools have an all-day timetable until 4 p.m. or 5 p.m. *(Ganztagsschulen)*.

[2] In Greece, teaching is organised for some groups in the morning (8 a.m. - 1.30 p.m.) and for others in the afternoon (2.15 p.m. - 5.30 p.m.). Pupils who have classes in the morning one week have classes in the afternoon the following week.

[3] In Italy several types of organisation coexist. Since 1990/91, schools can be organised either 6 mornings only (to 1 p.m.) (being phased out) or 5 or 6 mornings (to 12.30 p.m.) and one or two afternoon (from 2 p.m. to 4.30 p.m., e.g. Tuesday and Thursday) or an extended timetable *(tempo pieno)* (from 8.30 a.m. to 4.30 p.m. for 5 days with compulsory lunch in schools). In the extended timetable the school is open 37 hours per week. Care is provided for half an hour by local authorities.

[4] In Portugal, the "single system" is recommended (3 hrs. in the morning and 2 hrs. in the afternoon). Under the "double system", two groups of pupils use the same schools, each for 5 hrs. a day. Where there is a shortage of accommodation, schools can be open on Saturdays.

3. Authorities responsible for timetabling

In the majority of Member States, decisions on the hours of opening and closing schools are taken at Ministerial level. However, in some countries, local authorities or the schools can take decisions on their hours. Parents can also exercise their influence on this matter.

Table 6 : Levels of decision-making about weekly teaching timetables and school opening hours

	B	DK	D	GR	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	P	UK	
												Engl. Wales N.I.	Scot.
Ministry	*	*	*	*	*	*	*		*	*	*	*	
Local authorities		*				*		*		*			*
Organising powers	*		*	*		*	*			*			
School		*	*				*	*		*	*	*	*
Parents			*					*		*	*		

In this table, the term "Ministry" covers a variety of possible levels. It can be a national authority (administrative or political), a regional authority (*Land, Communauté, Département*) or a school inspectorate.

National data on the levels at which decisions are made on timetables

Belgium

Each organising authority is free to set school opening hours in the **French** and **German-speaking Communities.**

The Department of Education of the **Flemish Community** issues a model timetable, but the organising authorities can modify it. The organising authorities make the decisions on school opening hours.

Denmark

The law on the *Folkeskole* lays down a minimum number of class hours per week for each stage. The number of hours of teaching for each subject can vary both from school to school and from municipality to municipality.

Germany

The Ministry of Education in each *Land* sets the weekly teaching timetable. The school can decide whether to organise its teaching over five or six days, but some *Länder* have opted for the 5-day week over the whole of their territory. Schools can decide their own opening and closing hours. In certain cases they have to ask the permission of the school inspectorate to organise arrangements for provision out of school hours, either before or after classes.

The conversion of a school which only operates in the morning into one which remains open all day generally requires the approval of parents, teachers and the school inspectorate. The school must submit the application.

Greece

The weekly teaching timetable and the opening hours of schools are fixed by the Ministry of Education and Religious Affairs on the advice of the Pedagogical Institute, which is the official consultative body of the Ministry in primary and secondary education.

This timetable is operative in all schools in the country, but can be modified in certain cases. This, for example, happens in schools with one or more composite classes which have problems in working to the timetable and which can modify the weekly teaching timetable with permission from the responsible Education Office.

As far as activities out of school hours are concerned, the times at which the schools open are set by common agreement between the local authorities (parents association, municipality etc.), the head of the school and the director of the Education Office.

Spain

The weekly timetable is laid down by those authorities which are fully empowered to administer education, following the lines laid down by the central administrative body for education, the *Ministerio de Educación y Ciencia*. Nevertheless, local authorities and schools themselves can adapt the timetable to their own needs, while remaining within the margin of autonomy permitted by law.

At the moment, the seven Communities of Andalusia, the Basque Country, the Canaries, Catalonia, Galicia, Navarra and Valencia, hold responsibility for education. The other Autonomous Communities are subject to the central administration.

France

The *Académie* inspector, director of national education services at the level of the *département*, determines the opening and closing hours of primary schools in the context of the *département*'s model regulations after consultation with the Education Council of the *département*. These hours can be modified by the mayor for local reasons, with the agreement of the area inspector.

Ireland

The central authorities determine the minimum number of hours of daily instruction, subject to certain limits specified by the Department of Education, which makes recommendations concerning opening hours and the beginning of classes. Each School Council can determine the school timetable.

Italy

In consultation with parents and taking into account the availability of services offered by the local administration (transport, meals service etc.), the schools can arrange for teaching to be spread over six mornings or for alternative formulae by which some classes also take place in the afternoon

Luxembourg

The Ministry of Education lays down school hours for all stages of education. In primary education the *communes* can, when the occasion arises, set other opening times, when there are problems related to the transport of pupils to school. However, these modifications can never affect the total time in the school timetable. In any case, all changes affecting the timetable and opening hours of schools must be approved by the Ministry of Education.

The Netherlands

The law on basic education stipulates that the school day must begin and end at the same time for all pupils, regardless of age (exceptions are possible if at least 75% of parents agree). The law also sets the minimum and maximum number of teaching hours per day. This law also requires schools to provide supervision at lunch time (half-board schools) if the parents wish.

The competent authorities (which, for a public school, is the municipal council) determine the schools' opening hours within this framework. The timetable thus varies in different schools. The timetables must be shown in the school "activity plan". Parents exert an influence on decisions about the timetable through the participatory council.

Portugal

The timetable is made up taking into account the availability of space. Certain general rules, however, do apply: the morning period must begin between 9 a.m. and 10 a.m., for example, and the lunch break must last for at least one hour.

Without affecting the length of courses, the School Council can adapt the standard timetable to take into account local conditions - for example, by establishing seasonal variations. All changes in the organisation of schools must be approved by those responsible for the education of children.

United Kingdom

In **England, Wales** and **Northern Ireland**, the Education Regulations of 1981 make the lunch break compulsory save in exceptional circumstances. The Local Education Authorities or Governing Bodies of the schools determine opening hours autonomously, within the minimum required times.

In **Northern Ireland,** timetables must be submitted to the Department of Education Northern Ireland for approval.

In **Scotland,** each education authority sets the opening hours in consultation with the staff of the school.

4. Activities organised outside school hours

In the majority of the educational systems, it is possible for children to have their midday meal in school or in a place nearby under the supervision of the staff. On the other hand, it seems that school restaurants are not very common at the primary school stage. They exist in many schools in France, in Belgium, in some cases in Italy, in the Netherlands (half-board in school) and in the United Kingdom.

In some schools, supervised study or remedial programmes are organised after school. For example, in the French Community of Belgium supervised studies or homework classes *(écoles de devoirs)* are offered. In Germany, supervision of homework or group work is organised in certain schools. In France, there is study time in the evening after school, and sometimes before school opens.

Complementary activities out of normal class hours are organised in some countries. It is often a matter of a formula which is still experimental, being developed in pilot projects (in Belgium, Germany, France, Greece, the Netherlands, Portugal and the United Kingdom). In Denmark, this kind of provision is organised in out-of-school centres *(SFO)* which collaborate closely with schools.

Finally, it is to be noted that certain services are also accessible during the holidays. This, in particular, is the situation in Denmark with the *SFO* (open for 9-10 hours every day) and in the United Kingdom with "Out-of-School Children". In Spain, the school council of each school can also organise holiday camps.

National data on activities organised outside class time

Belgium

In the majority of cases, the schools of the three Communities organise provision before and after classes and supervision of the midday meal. Supervised study or homework classes are offered in some schools.

Denmark

Provision for children before and after class hours is made in recreation centres, of which there are a diminishing number, or in institutions called *Skolefritidsordninger - SFO*, which are replacing the earlier institutions. Recreation centres have social and educational objectives, and are open from 7 a.m. to 5 p.m. or 6 p.m.

*SFO*s are organised in close co-operation with the schools. They are intended primarily for children from pre-school up to the third year of the *Folkeskole*. Opening hours vary from one institution to another; on average the centre is open for seven or eight hours on school days. Recreation centres or *SFO*s are often located in the immediate vicinity of schools or in the same buildings.

Germany

Arrangements to take care of children outside normal classes have been introduced and tested in the various *Länder*, but they have used formulae which can vary from one *Land* to another.

Outside hours activities never mean courses concerned with theory. They include, rather, the organisation of the lunch break, supervision of homework, recreational activities and sometimes group projects.

Most *Länder* have established nurseries *(Horte)*, either independently of or in collaboration with the schools. They offer lunch, supervision of homework, and free activities with a socio-educational dimension.

Education which only takes up part of the day can be extended by an optional programme (in which pupils are offered supervised activities) both before and after classes, for example, from when the school opens its doors at 7.30 a.m. to 1 p.m. or 2 p.m. (sometimes up to 5 p.m.).

In other cases, schools organise a timetable for the full day up to 4 p.m. In this case, teaching and supervision are carefully co-ordinated.

Some schools collaborate with non-school establishments run by organisations which support youth and sports.

Greece

Some out-of-school activities are offered to children during the period before classes begin in the morning.

Supervision is offered between 12 noon and 1.30 p.m. for pupils in the first and second years.

Spain

There are two kinds of activities organised outside school hours: on the one hand, the complementary services, such as access to canteens, transport to and from school, the establishment of school hostels or boarding schools, psychological services and medical services; and on the other hand, complementary or extra-curricular activities, such as foreign language courses, computer courses, musical and artistic activities, excursions, trips and activities in holiday camps.

France

In many schools, pupils can eat lunch in a school canteen or restaurant.

There is also a study session in the evening after school. Sometimes there is a study session before school opens.

Some extra-curricular (athletic, artistic, cultural) activities take place in the context of the contracts to organise children's time and the "City-children contracts".

Ireland

There are no organised activities of this kind.

Italy

In some cases, schools make provision in the morning for children who must start their day earlier because of problems which arise from their parents' working times or because of the public transport timetable. This provision is supported by the parents and by local authorities. Transport to school can also be arranged if parents request this when enrolling their child.

Luxembourg

Supervision is provided for ten minutes before classes and for ten minutes after classes in all primary schools. Some *communes* have instituted longer periods of supervision.

A limited number of schools have a school canteen. There, the children can also enjoy supervised activities at the lunch break. In other cases, children leave school during the lunch break.

A system of supervised study periods after classes exists only for some classes in 60% of the *communes*.

The Netherlands

Primary schools must make provision for children during the lunch break. Parents have the option to arrange supervision for their children in school buildings before and after school hours. This service already exists in some schools.

There are also "mixed-age centres" which take in children from 4 to 12 years old after school.

The government declaration of June 1989 recognises that the care of children during the holidays currently creates a problem for many parents.

Portugal

There is provision for children out of school hours, organised by parent associations or by teachers, in buildings made available by the local authorities

United Kingdom

In **England, Wales** and **Northern Ireland** provision is made for pupils outside of school hours in "Out-of-school centres". A small number of these centres are open before the school begins, while the majority accept pupils after school.

In **Scotland**, schools with 50 or more pupils must provide the children with supervision in the playground during school hours. There are no regulations concerning provision for pupils before or after school, and it is generally not provided, except for certain rare exceptions, such as in certain private schools offering board (which provide supervision from 8 a.m. to 9 p.m.).

5. Responsibility for organising provision out of school hours and standards of staffing

Responsibility for organising the provision of care out of school hours can lie with public authorities (such as the Ministry of Education and/or the Ministry of Social Services, local authorities, etc.) or with private organisations, or can even be left to parent initiative. The share in the initiative taken by the public sector and by the Ministries of Education in particular varies considerably from country to country.

In certain cases, involvement in the organisation of out of school provision is a matter for the schools themselves (Belgium and Scotland). In other cases, responsibilities are shared between public authorities and private interests (Germany, France, Portugal, England, Wales and Northern Ireland).

Sometimes the decision to organise provision belongs solely to the local authorities (in Italy and Luxembourg) or to the Ministry of Education (Greece).

Very few Member States have legislation which regulates standards for out-of-school supervision. In England, Wales and Northern Ireland some regulations have been laid down on the number and qualifications of teachers.

Table 7 : Levels of decision-making about organisation of provision

	B	DK	D	GR	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	P	UK	
												Engl. Wales N.I.	Scot.
Ministry[1]			*	*		*				*	*	*	
Local authorities		*	*			*		*	*	*	*	*	
Schools	*	*	*		*	*						*	*
Parents		*	*		*	*				*	*	*	
Others			*			*					*		

[1] In this table, the term "Ministry" covers a variety of possible levels. It can be a national authority (administrative or political), a regional authority (*Land, Communauté, Département*) or a school inspectorate.

National data on levels of decision-making for the organisation of activities outside school hours - standards for supervision

Belgium

In the three Communities, the decision to organise provision out of school hours belongs to the school itself, in consultation with the organising authorities. In the **French Community,** supervised studies and homework classes are sometimes organised, generally on the initiative of parents or teachers.

There are no official standards for the supervision of children in school outside school hours in any of the three Communities. Nevertheless, during the lunch-break in the **French** and **German-speaking Communities,** supervision is provided and subsidised at the level of an hour per day for every hundred children enrolled in the school.

Denmark

The municipalities are responsible for organising recreation centres. Since 1984, they have also been able to organise *SFOs* (School Leisure Time Schemes) in collaboration with parents and the schools.

There are no official standards for the supervision of children outside school hours. The municipalities decide on the level of expenditure to ensure supervision of the children. At present, allocation of teachers is on the basis of one teacher for 12 children.

Germany

In most *Länder*, day nurseries are establishments of the youth services (e.g. of the voluntary welfare organisations) or of the local authorities. They are physically and administratively independent of the schools. The establishment of a day nursery requires the approval of the competent supervisory authority (e.g. the youth welfare office *(Jugendamt)*).

Nursery-type facilities are increasingly being set up either in the school buildings themselves or nearby *(Hort an der Schule, Schulkinderhaus)* in the form of pilot projects involving cooperation between schools and the youth welfare services. The decision to offer child care provision in cooperation with a voluntary youth welfare organisation, and the choice of voluntary organisation with which to cooperate, is for the individual school. Where child care provision is made available within the framework of a pilot scheme, it must be approved by the school inspectorate.

The decision to introduce out-of-hours provision is for the individual school but, depending on the *Land*, it must also be approved by the school authority. The initiative for the introduction of out-of-hours provision and of fixed school opening hours can be taken by the school, the body controlling the school or the parents. In making arrangements for care in primary schools with fixed school opening hours, the individual school draws up a scheme for the arrangement of the school's morning programme as regards content, education and organisation. In some of the *Länder*, schools can obtain advice on drawing up their schemes from the educational research institute of the *Land* or from the school inspectorate. The position is however that it is for those involved (teachers, parents and children) to devise the educational programmes for these extra-curricular activities, and local circumstances must be taken into account.

Out-of-hours care is subject to legal provisions which are implemented by teaching staff under the supervision of the education administration. There are in addition statutory regulations applicable to forms of out-of-hours provision which is organised by various private bodies.

Greece

The Ministry of Education and Religious Affairs is the only body competent to develop activity programmes for pupils at the primary stage out of school hours. To carry out this duty, the Minister of Education requests opinions from and takes into account proposals submitted by school advisers and directors of primary education services in prefectures throughout the country.

The official standards for supervision lay down that one teacher is required for 15-30 pupils, two teachers for 30-50 pupils and three teachers for 50-75 pupils.

Spain

In public schools, the School Council *(Consejo Escolar)*, which brings together the different members of the school community, is responsible for developing guidelines for the planning and implementation of complementary activities. The person responsible for the programme must then ensure that it is planned and implemented in accordance with the School Council's guidelines.

No legislation regulates supervision.

France

School meals services are provided by the municipality or by an association (for example, an association of the pupils' parents).

Directed or supervised study services and the services of leisure centres are provided by the municipality or by non-profit-making associations, with the approval of the school inspector *(Inspecteur d'Académie)* in the latter case.

Athletic, artistic and cultural activities are encouraged in connection with contracts (contracts to organise children's time and the "city-children" contracts) concluded on a voluntary basis between the local representatives of the national education system, local groupings, principally the *communes*, and other parties, e.g. associations of specialists (in the field of athletics or art, etc.), of pupils' parents, etc. A project must be established at the level of the individual school by the teachers, the specialists, and the local youth workers, and, more generally, by all interested parties.

No standards are laid down for the supervision of pupils.

Ireland

These services are not provided in Ireland.

Italy

The local authority organises the provision for pupils when they arrive in the morning. During lunch and also during the 10 minutes before classes begin, supervision is the responsibility of the teachers.

Luxembourg

Supervision services are the responsibility of the *communes*. Organisational decisions are made by the Communal Council.

There are no official standards for pupil supervision. The Ministry makes recommendations to the communes.

The Netherlands

The Primary Education Act requires primary schools to organise the supervision of children in school buildings or on school grounds during the lunch break (half-board system) if parents so request. In the case of public schools, the municipal council is responsible for the organisation of this service. This authority is required to take out civil liability insurance.

Supervision outside of class hours can be provided in school buildings by parents, with the knowledge and co-operation of the communes.

There are no official standards for the supervision of children except for lunch-time supervision.

Portugal

The organisation of provision for pupils in the first cycle is the responsibility of the regional education authorities. These activities result from initiatives by associations of parents and teachers who have demonstrated their interest in such services to the schools and the local authorities. The local authorities generally co-operate with these initiatives by placing facilities at the disposal of the interested parties. They then make an agreement with the regional directorate.

Supervision of breaks follows a rotational system laid down in advance by the School Council on the basis of two adults for 100 children.

United Kingdom

In **England, Wales** and **Northern Ireland,** the Children Act of 1989 requires local authorities to provide supervision for children in need outside school hours. Services for other categories of the population are left to the initiative of these same local authorities. Volunteer parent groups and some schools take charge of such services, some of which are organised as private enterprises, others as co-operatives.

In **Scotland,** some private schools organise supervision for children outside teaching hours. In the rare cases where provision is made by schools in the public sector, it is the schools themselves which are responsible.

In **England, Wales** and **Northern Ireland,** standards of supervision were laid down by the Children Act: one member of staff for 8 children aged 5 to 8. Half the staff must be qualified. Units can consist of a maximum of 30 children, but a maximum of 10 when the children are less than 8 years old.

In **Scotland,** in schools of 50 pupils or more, there must be at least one supervisor during breaks. Further provision is up to the education authority, on the advice of individual head teachers.

6. Financing the services

The majority of parents in the European Union have to pay for the provision for their children outside compulsory school hours. Normally, the parental contribution does not cover all expenses. In this case, the various public authorities (Ministry of Education, local authorities, regions etc.) take responsibility either in whole or in part for the expenses of activities out of school hours.

In Greece, the Ministry of Education and Religious Affairs is the sole source of finance for supervised activities for pupils. In other countries, financial aid from the Ministry of Social Services is added to the contribution of the Ministry of Education (Germany, France and Luxembourg), as is also financial aid from local authorities and regions (the *Gemeinden* in Germany, the *communes* in France and Luxembourg). In Belgium, Denmark, Italy, the Netherlands and Portugal only the local authorities give grants for the organisation of provision out of school hours. In the United Kingdom (except Scotland), the Local Education Authorities (LEA) as well as employers and trade unions give grants to schools from time to time.

Table 8 : Source of financing for provision outside school hours

	B		DK	D	GR	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	P	UK	
	Fr. Com.	Fl. Com.											Engl. Wales N.I.	Scot.
Education Ministry	*			*	*	*	*			*				
Soc. Services Ministry				*			*			*				
Local authorities	*	*	*	*			*		*	*	*	*	*	
Other				*		*					*	*	*	
Parents pay	yes	yes	yes	yes	in some cases	in some cases	in some cases		in some cases	yes	yes	yes	in some cases	in some cases

National data on the financing of services outside school hours and whether or not they are free

Belgium

In general, parents must pay for the services in the **French Community.** The average cost is Bfrs 40 per day, but there are important differences among schools. Morning and evening nurseries are not subsidised, and parents must generally pay for them individually.

In the **French** and **German-speaking Communities**, the schools have, during the lunch break, the benefit of supervision subsidised by the Community for one hour per day for every 100 pupils enrolled in the school. When a *commune* accepts responsibility for funding services considered as "social benefits", it must allocate funding to all schools in the *commune* without making any distinction among the school networks involved.

In the **Flemish Community,** services are not free of charge; parents are asked to make a contribution, but this does not cover the full cost. The services are financed by the provinces and the *communes*, with no subsidy from the Ministry of Education. The *communes* can decide to make grants to schools for certain services; in such cases, grants must be made to all schools on their territory, regardless of the education network to which they belong.

Denmark

The local authorities (municipalities) finance these services. Parents must pay for the services of the Recreation Centres and *SFOs*, but the amounts payable by parents vary from municipality to municipality. The parents' financial contribution does not cover all the costs.

Germany

Parents must generally pay for the supervised activities for their children outside compulsory school hours. It is usual for parents to pay a contribution proportionate to their income. In addition, the cost of these activities depends on how long they last. However, if they are organised at school, they are often provided free of charge (on the principle that education should be provided free of charge).

These activities are generally financed by the organisations which provide money for schools, by parent associations or by independent organisations, and also by subsidies from the Federal and *Land* governments. The amount and the nature of the aid granted by each of these groups varies from one *Land* to another.

Greece

The programme of activities out of school hours for pupils whose parents work is provided free of charge. It is financed by the Ministry of Education and Religious Affairs.

Spain

In public schools, families usually pay a specific amount for their children to have access to the school canteen and to transport services. Voluntary contributions by parent associations intended for the improvement of school materials and for extra-curricular activities can also be used for this purpose. The objective of the basic law on the general structure and organisation of the education system (*LOGSE*, 1990) is to provide general education free of charge, especially in the most difficult cases. Authorities responsible for schools grant school services free of charge in these cases.

France

The financing of contracts is borne by the Ministry of Youth and Sport and the local authority itself. The Ministry of Education also contributes when the projects promote the pupils' access to nearby cultural facilities and when professionals in the fields of art and culture are involved, i.e. participate in developing and carrying out the planned activities. In the case of public education, the state provides a block grant to municipalities.

Ireland

These services are not provided in Ireland.

Italy

Parents are asked to pay a very small contribution for the provision for pupils before classes start in the morning. The communes pay for the service.

Luxembourg

In school canteens, parents pay 50 Lfrs as their share of the cost. Responsibility for the remaining costs is taken equally by the state and the *commune*.

The Netherlands

The parents of the pupils involved pay for the service of supervision provided during the lunch break. Approximately 30% of pupils take the option of remaining at school at the lunch hour.

Portugal

Local authorities make the premises available to the schools. The services are not provided free of charge. Parents assume the costs.

United Kingdom

In **England, Wales** and **Northern Ireland** there are several different sources of funding for these services: the social services departments of local authorities, employers, trade unions, national charitable organisations (for example Kids' Club Network). In most cases, parents pay for these services

The amount varies: from £10 to £20 per week for supervision after school, and £25 to £50 per week during school holidays.

In **Scotland,** parents must pay for supervision services in the private schools which provide them. The schools receive no subsidy for these services.

The United Kingdom government recently took an initiative to grant a subsidy of £45 million to the Training and Enterprise Councils (TECs) for the period 1993-96 to develop partnerships among enterprise committees, local authorities, employers, parents, schools, health authorities, the police and the various organisers of services for children. The aim is to create 50,000 additional places in order to respond adequately to local needs.

7. Staff providing supervision

In half the Member States, the staff who underpin the provision out of school hours possess adequate teaching qualifications for offering this type of service.

Often, part of the work of this supervising staff is organised by teachers in the schools (supervision of study times, of breaks etc.) or by volunteers who may be qualified or not (Denmark).

In some countries, there are no regulations governing the qualifications of staff who are involved with children outside school hours. For example, in Belgium, the people responsible for the provision may be teachers in the school, parents of pupils or staff specially recruited for the purpose. On the other hand, in the United Kingdom (apart from Scotland), the law demands that half the supervising staff should have appropriate qualifications or experience.

Table 9 : Qualifications of staff providing supervision

	B	DK	D	GR	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	P	UK	
												Engl. Wales N.I.	Scot.
School staff	*			*	*	*			*		*		
Parents	*		*		*					*			
Others qualified	*	*	*	*	*	*			*			*	*
Others non-qualified	*	*	*	*	*			*	*		*	*	

National data on staff providing supervision

Belgium

In the three Communities, there are no regulations governing staff qualifications. These persons may be teachers, parents, specially recruited staff or students.

Denmark

In the *SFOs*, 75% of the staff hold a teaching qualification (for example, the certificate required to teach at the pre-school level). The remaining 25%, the assistants, hold no special qualifications.

Germany

Supervised activities out of school hours are put in the hands of education staff (teachers and social workers) and of teaching auxiliaries (nursery educators) assisted by qualified staff (mainly teachers) and sometimes by volunteers.

Greece

The teaching staff who work within the programme of provision outside school hours hold the same qualifications as permanent teaching staff, i.e. a diploma after at least four years of university studies in a faculty of education or a two-year diploma of the former Academy of Educational Studies. They can either be teachers, who work in the school during normal class hours (who do this in return for an additional salary), or temporary teachers (paid on the basis of the number of hours worked), or replacement teachers.

Spain

The school can set the qualifications for the staff it hires. There are no regulations on this matter.

France

Supervised or supported study is generally provided by primary or secondary school teachers who assist children who are experiencing problems. Professionals in the arts and culture can be associated with projects set up within the system of contracts, for example as support in carrying out the activities.

Ireland

These services are not provided in Ireland.

Italy

In most cases, the school's own support staff look after the children when they arrive in the morning. No teaching qualification is required. Staff members receive extra payment in addition to their salary.

Luxembourg

The supervisory staff can be made up of teachers, instructors, and individuals with no qualifications who are recruited specifically for this purpose.

The Netherlands

Supervision is provided at lunchtime primarily by teachers or by parents.

Portugal

Supervisory staff do not hold any special qualifications. Teachers and support staff from the schools supervise activities during school breaks.

United Kingdom

In **England, Wales** and **Northern Ireland** the Children Act requires that half of the staff in child care clubs hold qualifications (Playwork NVQ or Early Years NVQ) or demonstrate appropriate experience. Other kinds of qualifications, such as teaching qualifications, are also accepted.

In public education in **Scotland** the provision, where it exists, is staffed by qualified teachers (i.e. holding a degree taken over 4 or 5 years). Participation of parents is not usual in the public sector.

8. Arrangements for pupils outside school hours in private schools

In the majority of countries in the European Union, arrangements out of school hours made for pupils being educated in a private school differ little from the arrangements in a public school. In general, the source of finance represents the essential difference between the structures for the provision in public and private education. Private schools are often subsidised directly by the parents of the pupils. On the other hand, the finance of schools in the public sector, as described above, comes from a wider range of sources (see Table 8).

National data on arrangements for pupils out of school hours in private schools

Belgium

There are no differences arising from different networks.

Denmark

There is no equivalent arrangement in private schools.

Germany

There are no differences arising from different networks. Private schools represent only 1.5% of the total number of primary schools.

Greece

Activities outside school hours are organised differently in private schools.

Spain

In subsidised private schools, the School Council, as in the public educational system, approves complementary or extra-curricular activities at the different stages. The person responsible for the programme must plan the activities in accordance with the School Council's guidelines. The School Council requests authorisation from the provincial authorities of the Ministry of Education and Science so that the institution can receive a grant awarded for organised activities. Complementary and extra-curricular activities or programmes are provided free of charge as non-discriminatory and non-profit-making services.

Non-subsidised private schools are free to organise their activities as they wish. The services are financed by the pupils' parents.

France

Private schools under contract to the state receive a *forfait d'externat*. This is a sum calculated on a per pupil basis and corresponds exactly to the sum spent per pupil in the public sector. This grant covers all the school's expenses.

Ireland

These services are not provided in Ireland.

Italy

Private schools, and in particular those administered by religious orders, are normally the best organised to take care of pupils out of class hours. It is for this reason that some families choose them despite their high cost.

Luxembourg

Arrangements for making provision for the care of pupils are often similar in private schools, but some differences can exist, most notably in schools which have boarding facilities integrated in the school. (There are few schools in this category).

The Netherlands

In public and in private education, supervision of children out of school hours has, since 1991, been subsidised by local authorities on the basis of the request formulated by all parties concerned (parents, School Council etc.)

Portugal

In private schools, supervision services are structured differently. They are financed separately and are often provided by the teachers themselves.

United Kingdom

In the schools of **England, Wales** and **Northern Ireland,** no provision is made in either maintained schools or private schools.

In **Scotland,** some private schools organise their own provision for pupils outside school hours with the participation of the parents who wish it. These services are not subsidised.

9. Attendance rates in provision out of school hours

In its report on childcare in the European Community, the European Childcare Network estimated that supervision outside school hours for the period of compulsory schooling in 1990 covered only 5% of needs, except in Denmark, Belgium, France and Portugal.

The problem with this sort of estimate is that there is a variety of needs varying according to different economic circumstances, most notably in the extent to which women are employed, the type of job which they have (full- or part-time), and in the availability of non-institutional care-providers (grandparents, neighbours, etc.).

The Network estimated also that, on average, 10-15% of all children are supervised outside school hours. However, it is clear that if a greater number and variety of services become available in a country, new demands will arise. These estimates do not take into account the quality of the services currently available.

National data on the use of supervision services outside school hours

Belgium

On average, 12% of all children in the **French Community** take advantage of care offered after school. A much larger percentage remains at school during the lunch break. However, there are very important variations between schools. There are no statistics showing which age groups are involved, but it is clear that the youngest children (certainly those up to age 10) are more likely to attend. Older pupils are self-sufficient enough to go to school and return home by themselves.

It is primarily children between the ages of 3 and 14 who take advantage of the provision made in the **Flemish Community.** Only partial data covering one province are available. These indicate that 16% of pupils enrolled in pre-school and primary education use the facilities. The majority of these children (87%) do so regularly (at least once per week). In nursery school, care before and after school is provided for 20.1% of children; the percentage is 13.6% in primary school.

The majority of children in the **German-speaking Community** remain at school at lunch time (more in the towns than in the villages).

Denmark

In 1991/92, 71% of all municipalities provided *SFO*s. In the others, children could be provided for in other organisations. In some cases, several *SFO*s are attached to the same school. The number of *SFO*s grows each year.

Approximately 30% of children in the first three years of the *Folkeskole* are enrolled in an *SFO*. The great majority of them (90%) are enrolled in one of the first four school years. Less than 2% of children enrolled in an *SFO* go to a different school from the one in which the *SFO* is organised.

Germany

An estimated 4.4% of children in primary school in the old *Länder* attended a care centre in 1991. There are no statistics on the numbers of pupils attending primary schools with fixed hours and school nurseries. All-day primary schools are the exception. In the new *Länder*, the offer of care facilities greatly exceeds the demand.

Greece

The programme of activities outside of school hours was provided in 265 primary schools during the 1991/92 school year. These activities were attended primarily by pupils in the most junior classes.

Spain

The only available data indicate that 66% of subsidised, private schools at the level of basic general education submitted a grant application for complementary or extra-curricular activities and complementary services in 1987/88. In fact, this number includes a very wide range of activities. Subsidised, private schools received grants to provide a meals service for more than 44,000 children or 6.7% of pupils enrolled in these schools and 2.1% of pupils at this level of education.

France

At the beginning of the 1993/94 school year, 23% of pupils between 6 and 11 years of age *(enseignement pré-élementaire et élémentaire)* took part in out-of-hours services.

Ireland

These services are not provided in Ireland.

Italy

There are no statistics available at national level.

Luxembourg

There are no statistics on the number of pupils affected by these measures. Twelve of 118 communes provide these services for pupils in pre-school and primary school. As these are the largest communes, approximately 50% of the school population can take advantage of the services offered.

The Netherlands

There are no statistics on the number of children involved with services offered out of school hours. 625 municipalities provide these services.

Portugal

There are no statistics available.

United Kingdom

No statistics are available for **England, Wales** and **Northern Ireland.** Supervision outside of school hours is provided for all age groups.

In **Scotland,** less than 1% of all schools make provision outside school hours (estimate).

PART II : THE EDUCATION PROCESS

Chapter I.
PRE-SCHOOL EDUCATION

1. Role and objectives of pre-school education

All Member States of the European Union have one common objective in the field of pre-school education: to familiarise children with life in society and to teach them to live alongside others. Beyond this common mission, differences, nevertheless, appear in the role accorded to pre-school education and in the manner of its implementation.

In some countries (Germany, Ireland, the Netherlands and Denmark), the primary role of pre-school education is defined in terms which see it as complementary to young children's family life, their general up-bringing and education being provided primarily by the family unit. Teachers are essentially responsible for the socialisation and awakening of the child but have no remit to give instruction.

In other countries (Belgium, France, Luxembourg, Greece, Italy and Spain), the accent is also placed on the importance of learning skills, and pre-school education has a mission to familiarise the child progressively with the world of school. Nevertheless, the current tendency, almost everywhere in Europe, is to seek a harmonious balance between these two functions (socialisation and learning of skills).

2. Forms of provision and supervision

In most of the countries, children under three years old can be provided for in organisations financed by the Ministry of Social Services. The situation is different in Belgium, France and Spain, where pre-school education, financed by the Ministry of Education, is available before the child reaches the age of 3.

Care for the youngest children takes a variety of forms; but care within the family or by private childminders remains the most common solution, except in Denmark, where all-day nurseries (*Vuggestuer*) are very widely used.

The most common arrangements for children aged 3 to 6 (3 to 5 in the United Kingdom) who do not attend nursery school, are kindergartens or play groups, which are the responsibility of the Ministry of Social Services or organised by the private sector (particularly in the United Kingdom and in Ireland).

In Ireland and the Netherlands, separate pre-school education is not provided; children can attend primary school from the age of 4 in classes specially organised for their age-group and with a suitable programme of activities.

In most cases, parents must pay for child care provision financed by the social services.

3. Statistics on school attendance - ages 2 to 6

As the histograms in Graph 12 show, the numbers attending pre-school institutions vary enormously from country to country and from year group to year group. With the exception of France, Italy and Belgium, few children aged 2 or 3 are enrolled in a pre-school educational establishment. In these countries almost 100% attend nursery school from age 3.

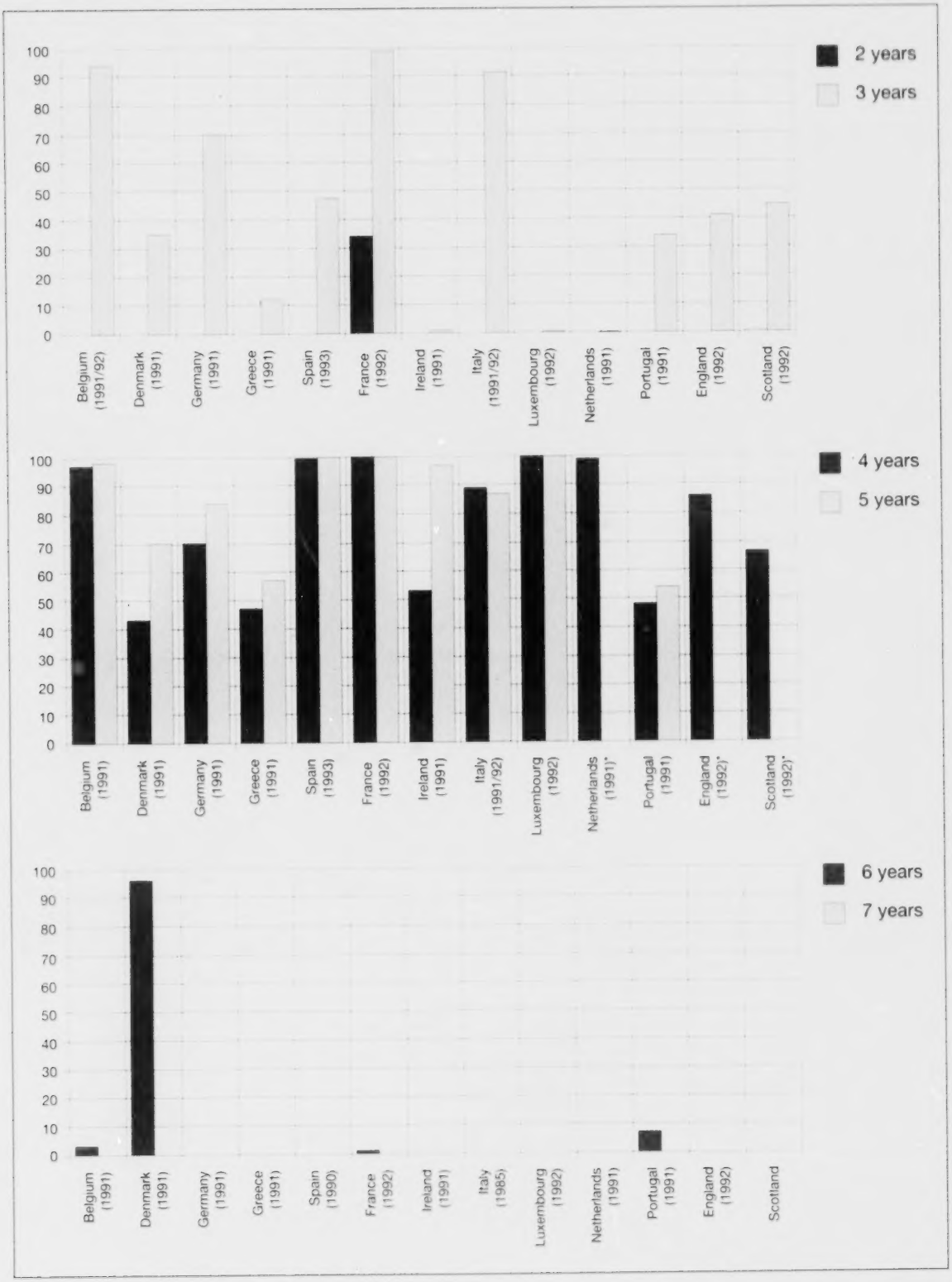
On the other hand, from age 4, the attendance figures are very high almost everywhere. At that age, almost 60% of children in the European Union are enrolled in a pre-school establishment. The rates of attendance come close to 100% in several countries (Belgium, Spain, France, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Italy and England). On the other hand, not more than half the children of this age are involved in Denmark, Ireland, Greece, and Portugal.

At 5 years old, in the Netherlands and the United Kingdom, all children have started their school education in compulsory primary school. In the other countries, almost all children are attending a pre-school establishment, except in Greece and Portugal where only half the children come into a pre-school establishment.

The majority of children of 6 are at the age of compulsory schooling and attend the primary school stage. That is why only Denmark, which has compulsory schooling beginning at age 7, has a very high percentage (more than 90%) of children of 6 enrolled in the nursery classes of the *Folkeskole* where they receive pre-school education.

Graph 12 : RATES OF ATTENDANCE AT PRE-SCHOOL ESTABLISHMENTS

By ages



* In the Netherlands and in England and Scotland, compulsory education starts at age 5.

National data on arrangements for pre-school provision, the ages and rates of attendance and the role of pre-school education

Belgium

Pre-school education constitutes an integral part of the educational system. The Communities take responsibility for pre-school education throughout the country. Optional and free of charge, pre-school education is provided for children aged 2 1/2 to 6.

Pre-school education is generally provided in premises attached to primary schools. In most cases, depending on the size of the school, pre-school education is organised in groups or classes based on age.

Attendance rates are very high. In the school year 1991/92, 95.5% of children aged 3, 98.7% of children of 4 and 99.5% of children of 5 attended a pre-school establishment in the **French** and **German-speaking Communities**. In the **Flemish Community** attendance rates were, in the same year, slightly different: 92% of children of age 3, 94% of children age 4 and 96% of children age 5.

The aims pursued are to familiarise children with life in society, to promote their mental and physical well-being, to teach them to express themselves correctly, and to encourage them to participate in musical and artistic activities. The educational activities which are offered are adapted to the needs of children within a particular age group.

Denmark

The pre-school education sector in Denmark includes several different institutions. A distinction is to be made, on the one hand, between day nurseries (*vuggestuer* - from birth to age 3) and kindergartens (*børnehaver* - from 3 to 7), which come directly under the Ministry of Social Services, and, on the other, the pre-school classes in the *Folkeskole* (*børnehaveklasser* - from age 5 to 7), which come directly under the Ministry of Education.

Since the beginning of the school year 1980/81, all municipalities have had to provide nursery classes. In municipal schools, education is free of charge. Pre-school education is optional.

Attendance rates vary between 35% for the youngest children in nurseries and kindergartens and 70% for children aged 5 to 7 in nursery classes (96% of children aged 6).

The nurseries and kindergartens complement the children's family life by enabling them to participate in educational activities which contribute to the development of their personality and creativity. Pre-school classes aim more specifically to prepare children for school routine by encouraging them to play and co-operate with other children and, in this way, to familiarise them gradually with school life. Children have three or four "lessons" per day, five days per week. Children in pre-school classes can receive the same lessons as children in the first two years of the *Folkeskole*.

Germany

Children under age 3 can attend crèches (*Krippen*), day-centres or can be taken care of by private child-minders.

Pre-school education includes several different institutions: the *Kindergarten* (for children aged 3 to 6); the *Schulkindergarten* which is compulsory for children who have reached school age but who are not yet ready to enter primary school. In some *Länder* and in a limited number of schools (Hamburg, Berlin, Hessen and Lower Saxony), there are also *Vorklassen* attached to the primary school system for 5-year-olds. These come under the Education Ministries of the individual *Länder*. The *Kindergärten* are under the aegis of the Ministries of Social Affairs for the individual *Länder*, except in Bavaria and Lower Saxony where they are under the relevant Ministry of Education.

Approximately 70% of the *Kindergärten* in the old *Länder* are managed by independent bodies (churches or voluntary and charitable associations) and about 30% by local authorities. Government control over the *Kindergärten* is usually in the hands of the authorities responsible for youth services.

The objective of the *Kindergärten* is to promote the development of children by focusing their interests on play, without addressing in advance the subjects which they will be taught in school. Using games and other activities suitable to their age, the children develop their physical and intellectual skills, learn to live in groups and in society, and become accustomed to following a school routine. In general, children who attend *Kindergärten* or other pre-schools are not expected to achieve any specific level of intellectual or other performance.

Greece

The decision to set up nursery schools and to increase the number of permanent teachers, is made jointly by the Minister of Education and Religious Affairs and by the Minister of Finance. Pre-school education is optional. Schools accept children who have reached the age of 3 1/2 by October of the first year of enrolment until age 5 1/2. Attendance in nursery school will gradually become compulsory in certain regions as determined by Ministerial decree.

The *Nypiagogeia* (nursery schools), which have between seven and 30 children, have only one teacher. They are called *monothesia*. The nursery schools which have between 31 and 60 children are called *dithesia*.

The nursery school has as its aim to help children develop physically, emotionally, intellectually and socially, in the context of the wider objectives of primary and secondary education. There are also day centres and playschools subsidised by the central government, by local authorities or by the private sector.

Spain after the reform

Pre-school education *(Educación Infantil)* is integrated into the Spanish educational system. It is optional and divided into two cycles: from birth to age 3 and from age 3 to 6. In the public sector, pre-school education is provided free of charge. The trend is for the government to increase the number of institutions providing free education at the second cycle.

The primary aim is the harmonious development of the child's personality.

France

The care services for children from 0 to 3 (communal crèches, family crèches, short-term nurseries *(halte garderie)* etc.) are the responsibility of the municipal social services and of the Minister for Social Affairs. From age 2, children can be enrolled in nursery schools *(écoles maternelles)* which cater for their education up to age 6. The general responsibility for these schools falls on the Ministry of Education. When it is not possible to establish a separate nursery school, infant classes are attached to primary schools. Attendance at pre-school institutions is optional and free in public establishments.

Nursery schools are attended by more than a third of children aged 2 and by almost all (99%) children of 3.

Nursery school corresponds to the first learning cycle *(cycle des apprentissages premiers)*. Children are generally divided into three sections according to their age: the lower *(petite)* section for 2 to 4-year-olds; the middle *(moyenne)* section for 4 to 5-year-olds; and the upper *(grande)* section for 5 to 6-year-olds. The upper section of nursery school is also part of the basic learning cycle *(cycle des apprentissages fondamentaux)* which is continued in the preparatory course and the first year primary course (the first two years of primary school).The decision on whether children should join the basic learning cycle is taken by the teaching team and depends on the child's ability to cope. In the two first sections, children learn to relate to the external world, to live in a group other than the family and to communicate in language as well as in song, drawing, gestures and movements. They develop their physical, sensory and intellectual capabilities in the round, as a result of well matched activities set by the teacher. They undertake the early learning on which later learning will depend. The upper *(grande)* section provides the transition to primary school. At this stage, the child is gradually introduced to reading, writing and arithmetic, while pursuing other physical, manual and artistic activities.

Ireland

There is no national system of pre-school or nursery school education in Ireland. National Schools, however, can accept children from the age of 4. The first two cycles of the National Schools, intended for children between 4 and 6, are the Junior Infants (age 4-5) and the Senior Infants (age 5-6).

Education in the National Schools is free of charge. Other pre-school education services are provided for the most part by charitable institutions. Normally the Department of Education does not provide any assistance to pre-school institutions, which in any case are not a part of the official education system. Parents bear all the costs of these schools.

In 1991, some 55% of children aged 4 and nearly 100% of children aged 5 were attending the Infant Classes of the National Schools. The curriculum followed in the National Schools during the two years prior to compulsory schooling constitutes part of an integrated educational programme extending through the eight years of primary education.

Italy

The nurseries available to children under the age of 3 are the responsibility of the local authorities. Public and private nursery schools take children from age 3 to age 5. General responsibility for state institutions

providing pre-school education falls to the Minister of Education. However, most nursery schools are managed by local authorities. Attendance is optional. Public nursery schools are free of charge.

On average, 91.4% (1991/92 data) of children over the age of 3 have the benefit of pre-school education.

The aim of the nursery school is to assist children to develop their personalities and to prepare them to enter compulsory education. It also aims to complement parents' efforts in this area in order to avoid problems of social imbalance and maladjustment.

Luxembourg

Pre-school institutions for children from 4 to 6 come under the authority of the Ministry of Education which reimburses the *communes*, which are responsible for managing them, to the extent of two thirds of their expenditure. Pre-school education is compulsory for children from the age of 4. Most pre-school institutions are attached to primary schools, but offer activity programmes suited to the ages of the children.

Pre-school education is intended to promote the physical, intellectual and moral development of the children and to prepare them for entering primary school.

The Netherlands

Play groups, open for several hours each day, accept children under 4. They are run by private individuals or managed and controlled by the local authorities. The latter are within the responsibility of the Ministry of Social Security, of Health and of Cultural Affairs.

There is no specific pre-school stage in the educational system. Primary education takes children from the age of 4. Attendance remains optional until age 5.

More than 95% of children aged 4 attend primary school. 47% of children age 2 and 3 attend play groups.

In the first year of primary school (for 4-year-olds), pupils do not have a normal school programme. A programme of educational activities suited to their age is provided.

Portugal

Pre-school education is provided in "kindergartens" *(Jardins de Infancia)* by a wide range of state organisations (Ministry of Education, Ministry of Employment and Social Welfare, and autonomous organisations), charitable associations, private schools and co-operatives, as well as by trade unions and other organisations.

Kindergartens in the public domain take children from the age of 3 until they enter primary school.

Pre-school education is considered an integral part of the education system and specific objectives have been defined by the *Lei de Bases do Sistema Educativo* (Education Act) and by the responsible department of the Central Administration. It is optional.

United Kingdom

The social services of the local authorities can organise nurseries which accept children under the age of 2 during the day. These services fall under the responsibility of the Department of Health. In Scotland the responsibility belongs to the Scottish Office Home and Health Department.

In **England** and **Wales**, there is no national system of pre-school education. Pre-school education is provided either by the LEAs (Local Education Authorities) or by independent bodies. Children aged 3 to 5 may enrol in nursery schools or in nursery classes in primary schools. Attendance is voluntary and can be on either a full or a part-time basis. Private kindergartens and pre-school play groups are provided by parents and voluntary or independent bodies, most of which do not charge fees.

In **Scotland**, children of 3 to 5 can be accepted in nursery schools controlled by the education authorities and in kindergartens belonging to voluntary or independent organisations. This form of education is optional and can be on a full-time or part-time basis.

In **Northern Ireland**, pre-school education is provided for children between 3 and 4 years old by the Education and Library Boards in nursery schools and in nursery classes attached to primary schools. The age for beginning compulsory primary education is laid down as 4.

4. Decisions and issues regarding the transition from pre-school to primary school

The transition between pre-school and primary school is currently a topic of debate in several Member States of the European Union. Some countries have sought to resolve the problem through structural procedures, such as the integration of nursery classes into primary education (the Netherlands, Denmark, etc.) or of including the last year of pre-school in the same cycle as the first year of primary school (France).

Other solutions involve looking for continuity in a curriculum which is more focused on play in the first years of primary school (Germany), or continuity in course content (Flemish Community of Belgium) or in looking for greater collaboration with families (Spain). Such a contribution from the family is very important in the schools in Luxembourg, where parents have the right to judge whether their children are ready to enter the primary stage. If they consider that the child is not yet sufficiently mature, they can request a postponement of the entry of the child to the primary school.

National data on the issues of transition from pre-school to primary

Belgium

Official texts in the **French Community** advocate harmonising the transition from pre-school to primary school.

School-age pupils can remain in pre-school education in the **Flemish and German-speaking Communities** if the school and the psycho-medical-social centre consider this to be important for them. Pupils aged 5 can begin the first year of primary education if the school and the psycho-medical-social centre agree. Some teaching programmes take the issue of transition into account, particularly the teaching of reading in the mother tongue and physical education.

Denmark

The *Folkeskole* takes charge of the child from age 5 to 16. Problems of transition do not arise during this period.

Germany

The law defines the concept of "school age" for purposes of admission to primary school. The concept includes the children's stage of development, their school experience, the demands made by the schools, and the pupils' learning potential at the beginning of their school career. From the point of view of methodology, the educational programme at the beginning of primary school is based on learning through play in order to smooth the transition from pre-school. Examples are to be seen of collaboration between primary school teachers and *Kindergarten* teachers.

Greece

In the primary school, children with learning difficulties are provided with additional assistance in their mother tongue and mathematics.

Spain

Continuity between pre-school and primary school is a matter of concern. To deal with this problem, the educational programme calls for co-operation between the school and the family, which plays an important educational role during this transition. It is also useful to make up for the significant differences between children who have had pre-school experience and those for whom primary school is their first contact with the school environment.

France

The upper *(grande)* section of nursery school is also part of the basic learning cycle (the beginning of primary school) and is organised so as to take account of the pupils' learning patterns and potential.

Ireland

The problem of transition between pre-school and primary school does not appear. The curriculum laid down for the first two years of the National Schools is part of an integrated educational programme which covers the eight years of primary education.

Italy

The educational programmes suggest that course planning should take as its staring point the actual stage of development of the class and the pupil.

Luxembourg

Only age plays a role in the transition to primary school. Children must be 6 years old. Parents, however, can request a delay in moving up the school, if they judge that their children have not reached a sufficient stage of maturity to tackle the first learning experiences in the first year of primary. In this case, the children remain in nursery school for an extra year.

The Netherlands

Since 1985, primary schools have accepted children from the age of 4. An assessment of the integration of nursery schools is expected at the end of the school-year 1993/94.

Portugal

The law provides for integration of the establishments of pre-school education in *escolas básicas integradas* covering the three phases of compulsory education. These schools, which have been in operation since the beginning of the 1991/92 school year, represent an educational experiment based on the following principles: the existence of a common educational plan, management of the activities and the resources, and unity of management with representation of the various levels.

United Kingdom

In **England**, **Wales** and **Northern Ireland**, primary schools publish the conditions on which they admit pupils. Pupils are not selected on the basis of ability.

In **Scotland**, primary schools often take children of 4 into a nursery class and also make close links with other pre-school groups in their locality, to help the transition.

Chapter II.
PRIMARY EDUCATION

A. Educational Programmes and their Content

In some countries of the European Union the term "educational programme" *(programme éducatif)* is used to designate a plan of specific educational activities. The documents which set out the "educational programme" so-defined can range from the text of a law and a presidential decree to the pupil's text-book, not to mention the Ministerial circular and the programme of studies. In other cases, the term means a set of courses. It can also be defined as a *curriculum*, i.e. a set of planned activities to promote teaching, and includes teaching objectives, contents, methods (including assessment), materials (including school text books) and arrangements for teacher training. It is by using this last and broadest definition that international comparison of official guidelines appears most relevant.

This section presents an analysis of different aspects of official educational programmes: development, responsibility and content. All the information contained in this chapter is extracted from official documents.

1. Responsibility for developing educational programmes

Responsibility for developing educational programmes is exercised at different levels. The first level, the Ministerial, defines **guidelines, principles or criteria for the development of educational programmes**. It is generally the Minister or the Secretary of State who initiates the reorganisation of an educational programme. Certain countries, such as **France, Scotland** or **Italy**, have a special structure which expresses views and makes proposals to the Minister for the development of new educational programmes.

The second level of decision-making is that of the actual development of the educational programme. In several countries (Belgium, Germany, France, Italy, Luxembourg, United Kingdom), educational programmes are drawn up under the Minister's responsibility by **working groups** composed of teachers, inspectors, teacher educators or researchers. In Greece, educational programmes are prepared by advisers attached to the Pedagogical Institute.

In Germany, educational programmes are laid down by the different Ministries of Education as regulations; they are obligatory for teachers. However the educational aims are formulated in such wide terms that they allow great latitude in the choice of educational methods and in the selection and allocation of content.

In the Netherlands, programmes are partly defined by law and by the Minister of Education and Science.

The distribution of responsibilities for developing different parts of the educational programme varies considerably from country to country. In Greece, national authorities carry the greatest responsibility. Those in charge of developing educational programmes determine the subjects, the period of time each subject is to be taught, the content, and even edit text books. In England and Wales, subjects which are to be taught, the objectives of each subject, and the means of assessment are defined at national level. On the other hand, the official educational programme

merely suggests how much teaching time should be allotted to each subject, without making it obligatory. There are no guidelines on methods. In the Netherlands, the law and decrees of the Minister of Education and Science only define the list of compulsory subjects and the essential aims.

In countries where official guidelines are concerned primarily with defining the goals to be attained, it is the schools and teachers who are responsible for defining the means to achieve these goals: the organisation of course content, teaching materials including the choice of textbooks, and teaching methods.

2. Levels of decision-making for different aspects of the educational programmes

List of subjects

The list of subjects areas is always laid down centrally. (In Germany this responsibility lies with the Ministries of Education of the *Länder*). In some countries, individual subjects are grouped together in subject areas, which leaves the teacher free to develop certain subjects more than others. For example, at the beginning of primary education, history, geography and the sciences are grouped together in a subject area called, depending on the country, something similar to "Environmental Studies", or "The Natural and Social Environment".

The number of different compulsory subjects at the beginning of primary education therefore can provide an indicator of the specificity or, on the other hand, the flexibility of official guidelines concerning the areas to be covered.

Table 10 : Number of compulsory activities at the start of primary education

	B	DK	D	GR	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	P	UK	
												Engl. Wales N.I.	Scot.
Number of compulsory subjects	10	7	7	6	6	7	10	9	9	7	7	10	5

Timetabling of subjects

Depending on the country, the amount of time to be allotted to each subject area is presented in terms of the number of hours per week, number of hours per year, number of lessons per week, or proportion of time per week. These indications can appear as compulsory, as guidelines to be followed and adjusted if circumstances justify it, or as approximations of the amount of time one might devote to a given subject area.

France lays down the time schools must allot to each of three subject areas, within which teachers are free to decide the emphasis they wish to give to a particular subject. The same is true in several *Länder* in Germany, at least during the first two years. Some countries do not provide any directions of this kind in their official guidelines. In Italy, the Netherlands and Portugal, it is the schools which are responsible for determining how much time they will allot to each subject in the school timetable. In Ireland, the use of time is flexible.

In addition, the official recommendations in some countries leave periods free for other types of teaching: learning support (in the French and German-speaking Communities of Belgium), projects (Portugal), directed activities (Luxembourg) or other optional subjects (Denmark, Spain, Luxembourg and the United Kingdom). In Germany, remedial courses are provided in certain subjects, at the level of two hours per week, for pupils with learning difficulties.

Defining objectives

Educational objectives can be defined at several levels. The first and most common level defines general objectives. A second level defines the minimum objectives pupils must achieve by the end of a year or cycle of several years of study. The third level defines operational objectives directly related to the teaching process. These are the competences pupils must acquire by the end of a lesson or series of lessons. Not all countries define the second and third levels.

The definition of minimal objectives is normally linked to the organisation of basic education in learning cycles. This is the case in the United Kingdom, Spain, France and Portugal. It will probably also be the case in Belgium in the near future.

In the Netherlands, objectives and goals are defined as the minimum content a school must offer pupils before they leave basic education.

Table 11 : Definition of objectives

	B		DK	D	GR	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	P	UK	
	Fr. Com. Ge.-sp. Com.	Fl. Com.											Engl. Wales N.I.	Scot.
General aims	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Minimal aims for end of cycle				X		X	X		X		(X)	X	X	X
Operational aims		X	X	X					X					

Organising course content and teaching methods in each subject area

Decisions concerning teaching methods and the organisation of course content in each subject area, which are generally made at the ministerial or regional level, take the form of guidelines and principles of action (GL). The practical implementation (PI) of these guidelines, the organisation of course content and the choice of teaching materials is usually left to the teachers' discretion. However, some countries develop textbooks at national level, which teachers can then use more or less freely (Greece, Luxembourg, Ireland).

Table 12 : Decisions on organisation of content and methods

Authority	B	DK	D	GR	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	P	UK	
												Engl. Wales N.I.	Scot.
National Ministry		GL		GL/ PI	GL	GL/ PI	GL/ PI	GL/ PI	GL/ PI		GL		GL
Regional Ministry	GL		GL										PI
Local	GL	GL										GL	
School/teacher	PI	PI	PI		PI		PI	PI	PI	GL/ PI	PI	PI	PI

GL = Guidelines and principles. PI = Practical implementation.

Methods of assessment

The procedures and methods of assessing pupils constitute an important part of the educational process. In effect, teachers tend to prepare the children for subjects which are included in the assessment. In countries where these procedures are defined at the ministerial level, they exert an important influence on the choice of course content. This is the case in the United Kingdom, where there are national examinations at the end of *key stages* (optional in Scotland). In France, there are national tests at the beginning of the consolidation cycle *(cycle des approfondissements)* in primary school. These assist the teacher in assessing how much the pupils have learned, in making up deficiencies and in establishing procedures to bring them up to the required standard. In the Netherlands (at the end of the primary cycle), in Ireland, and in Scotland, teachers may use national tests to supplement assessments of their own.

Table 13 : Development of assessment tools

Authority	B	DK	D	GR	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	P	UK	
												Engl. Wales N.I.	Scot.
Ministry						X	X					X	X
School/teacher	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X

Synthesis of decision-making levels

Some countries place greater emphasis in their guidelines on how courses are taught. They specify teaching methods, the amount of time and the teaching materials to be used. This is the case in Greece and, to a lesser degree, as they allow more flexibility in the practical implementation of the guidelines and the choice of textbooks, in Belgium, Denmark, Luxembourg and Germany.

Other countries place greater emphasis on the objectives to be attained and sometimes suggest using national tests (United Kingdom and the Netherlands). They allow teachers greater freedom to use their own initiative in achieving these objectives as long as they succeed in bringing the children to the level defined by the objectives.

Between these two extremes, there are countries like Spain, France, Portugal and Italy. Ireland provides recommendation for both goals and means without, however, defining minimal objectives.

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

The following table presents a general overview of the levels (Ministerial or local) at which decisions concerning different aspects of the educational programmes are made.

Table 14 : Overview of the place of decision-making for different aspects of the educational programme

	List of Subjects	Minimal Competences	Assessment Tools	Subject Timetable	Methods	Textbooks
Belgium	Ministry	Local Responsibility	Local Responsibility	Ministry	Ministry Local Responsibility	Local Responsibility
Denmark	Ministry	Local Responsibility	Local Responsibility	Local Responsibility	Ministry Local Responsibility	Local Responsibility
Germany	Ministry	Local Responsibility	Local Responsibility	Ministry	Ministry Local Responsibility	Chosen by schools from list recommended by Ministries
Greece	Ministry	Local Responsibility	Local Responsibility	Ministry	Ministry Local Responsibility	Ministry
Spain	Ministry	Ministry	Local Responsibility	Ministry	Ministry Local Responsibility	Local Responsibility
France	Ministry	Ministry	Ministry Local Responsibility	Ministry Local Responsibility	Ministry Local Responsibility	Local Responsibility
Ireland	Ministry	Local Responsibility	Ministry Local Responsibility	Local Responsibility	Ministry Local Responsibility	Ministry Local Responsibility
Italy	Ministry	Local Responsibility	Local Responsibility	Local Responsibility	Ministry Local Responsibility	Ministry Local Responsibility
Luxembourg	Ministry	Local Responsibility	Ministry Local Responsibility	Ministry	Ministry Local Responsibility	Ministry Local Responsibility
Netherlands	Ministry	Ministry Local Responsibility	Ministry Local Responsibility	Local Responsibility	Local Responsibility	Local Responsibility
Portugal	Ministry	Ministry	Ministry Local Responsibility	Local Responsibility	Ministry Local Responsibility	Local Responsibility
United Kingdom England, Wales and Northern Ireland	Ministry	Ministry	Ministry Local Responsibility	Ministry Local Responsibility	Local Responsibility	Local Responsibility
United Kingdom Scotland	Ministry	Ministry	Ministry Local Responsibility	Ministry Local Responsibility	Local Responsibility	Local Responsibility

Ministry = national or regional level.
Local responsibility = school, teachers.

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

National data on decisions on the development of educational programmes

Belgium

Development

For education in the **French** and **German-speaking Communities**, programmes are developed by the Educational Programme Committee (*Lehrplankommission* for the **German-speaking Community**) and adopted by the Minister.

For subsidised education, each organising body (province, commune, non-state sector) is free to develop its own educational programmes, but must submit them to the Minister for approval. Educational programmes in the two Communities serve as a basis for comparison.

For education in the **Flemish Community**, educational programmes are developed by working groups specific to each subject area. The groups are made up of primary school teachers, teachers of the first year of secondary school, teacher educators and subject specialists.

Applicability of the Official Guidelines

The organising bodies of non-state subsidised schools (44.8% of pupils in the **French Community**, 11% in the **German-speaking Community** and 64.7% in the **Flemish Community**) and of official subsidised schools (43% in the **French Community**, 64% in the **German-speaking Community** and 22% in the **Flemish Community**) must follow the educational programme and a minimum timetable laid down by law and must have appropriate teaching materials and school equipment.

Denmark

Development

The Minister of Education determines the objectives in each subject area and the compulsory subject areas and designates the most important areas of knowledge and of skills. The Minister can also propose guidelines for the educational programme, with a description of the contents of each course and examples of teaching using differentiated teaching methods. The Minister can suggest, too, the teaching material to be used in interdisciplinary areas, as well as series of exercises and sample timetables.

The school makes its proposals for the educational programme to the municipal council.

Applicability of the Official Guidelines

Private schools (10.9% of all pupils) must match the standards set in municipal schools in teaching Danish, mathematics and English.

Germany

Development

The Ministries of Education in the *Länder* are responsible for determining the subject areas, developing policy and educational programmes. The educational programme committees (one per subject) are made up of teachers, head teachers, civil servants, representatives of research institutes and specialist departments in colleges of education, together with representatives of parents on a consultative basis. The committees present proposals for educational programmes to the Ministry which makes the decision.

Applicability of the Official Guidelines

Private schools (1% of pupils in primary schools) are not obliged to follow the programmes used by state schools to the letter. On the other hand, equivalence is demanded in teacher training, objectives, school equipment and organisation.

Greece

Development

Advisers attached to the Pedagogical Institute draw up a list of subjects to be studied, specify the amount of time to allot to each subject, and edit textbooks in all subjects.

Applicability of the Official Guidelines

Private schools (5.8% of all pupils) follow educational programmes identical to those offered in state schools. All initiatives involving the content of the educational programmes must be approved by the Ministry of Education.

Spain

Development

The government defines the minimum education that must be provided for children, i.e. the basic subjects.

Schools add to and develop the educational programme.

Content

The programme of study sets objectives, course content and the amount of time allotted to each subject area, teaching methods and criteria for the assessment of pupils at each level. It includes conceptual knowledge, skills, behaviour and values.

Applicability of the Official Guidelines

These guidelines apply to all schools.

France

Initiative

The Minister is responsible for developing educational programmes. A National Council on Educational Programmes gives advice and makes proposals to the Minister concerning general education policy, the broad goals to be attained, the adequacy of educational programmes to achieve these goals and on their adjustment to the development of knowledge. This council is composed of qualified people appointed by the Minister.

Development

The development of the forthcoming programmes, which are to come into operation at the beginning of the school year in September 1995, is the responsibility of the Director of Schools.

Content

A document entitled "Cycles in Primary School" complements other documents known as "Educational Programmes and Instructions" and defines the competencies which pupils must acquire in each of the cycles. These competencies are of three types: overall competencies (in the fields of attitude and basic concepts of space and time), linguistic competencies, and subject competencies.

Applicability of Official Guidelines

Private schools under contract must adhere to or make reference to the educational programmes and rules in public education which deal with the amount of time allotted to different subject areas. Schools without a contract are free to develop their own educational programmes. (14.9% of pupils attend private schools.)

Ireland

Development

The Minister for Education defines the educational programme known as the "National School Curriculum".

Content

The educational programme focuses on the child and permits a certain amount of flexibility in the use of time and in teaching methods. It specifies the subjects to be taught. The Department of Education's instructions are also published in the form of teachers' manuals.

Applicability of the Official Guidelines

Private schools (which are not grant-aided and involve only 1.4% of pupils) follow the same educational programme but there is no control over this.

Italy

Initiative

The production of the programme is initiated by reports submitted by school heads or school inspectors and by educational research committees which collaborate with the Ministry of Education.

Development

A committee made up of education experts and experienced individuals develops the educational programme.

Applicability of the Official Guidelines

Private schools (8% of pupils) are entirely free. Private schools which have been recognised legally must conform to the educational programmes, teaching materials, timetables and general organisation of public schools.

Luxembourg

Development

Ministerial working groups are composed of teachers and a member of the inspectorate. These groups are co-ordinated by the Service of Co-ordination of Educational and Technological Research and Innovation. School text books must be approved by the Teaching Committee *(Commission d'Instruction)*.

Applicability of the Official Guidelines

Private schools (2.3% of pupils) must in principle teach the same subjects as public schools.

The Netherlands

Development

The Primary Education Act provides guidelines concerning what should be taught, the school plan (the list of compulsory activities), and the number of class hours and days. The Minister for Education and Science defines the main objectives.

The authority with responsibility for the school is free to define the practical implementation of these objectives in the school plan. Each school has its own plan of work and activities. It must submit the plan to the inspector for approval.

Content

The main objectives *(kerndoelen)* provide a checklist of the minimum content which a school offers to pupils before they leave basic education. This is a change compared with the previous educational programme.

The school plan *(schoolwerkplan)* provides an overview of the course content and organisation. It must mention at least:

- the objectives of learning and development in the school;
- the areas of learning, the breadth of the subject area and its organisation;
- the working methods and teaching materials.

Details of the school plan are given in the activity plan *(activiteitenplan)*, which sets out the pupils' activities and the duties of the teaching staff over a specified period.

Applicability of Official Guidelines

Both public and private schools (63.8% of pupils) enjoy considerable autonomy.

Portugal

Development

Educational programmes are drawn up by the Ministry of Education. Schools, however, can be flexible in the way they implement them and they may integrate elements of a regional character.

Content

The educational programme defines: guiding principles, general objectives, objectives in each subject area, and suggestions on implementation.

Applicability of Official Guidelines

Private schools with pedagogical autonomy can establish an independent policy on methods, materials, subjects and contents, assessment and the awarding of diplomas. Private schools maintaining a parallel teaching programme can establish independent policy on methods, materials and assessment. (6,8% of pupils attend private schools.)

United Kingdom

Initiative

The Secretary of State for Education takes the initiative in the development of educational programmes in **England**. In **Wales** and **Northern Ireland** responsibility falls to the respective Secretaries of State.

Development

England, Wales and Northern Ireland

Working groups are formed to make recommendations concerning objectives, the means to achieve these objectives and assessment.

Scotland

The government defines the educational programme in the form of guidelines. Working groups develop working documents. The government then consults interested parties. The guidelines take into account the responses to this consultation.

Content

The national curriculum in **England, Wales** and **Northern Ireland** includes:

- the subjects which must be taught;
- attainment targets for each subject, defining the knowledge, skills and understanding which should be expected from children of different abilities and levels of maturity. (There are two types of attainment targets, the first dealing with what must have been learned by the end of a stage (end of key stage statements) and the second dealing with one of the ten attainment levels measured on a single scale and covering all stages);
- the subjects, aptitudes and programmes of study which must be taught in each subject and at each key stage in order to meet the objectives;
- the means of assessment which will show the performance of the children in relation to the objectives at the end of each key stage.

The content of the compulsory religious education is decided at local level.

The governors and staff enjoy considerable autonomy in determining how much time to allot to each subject as well as in their choice of teaching methods and materials.

In **Scotland**, the national guidelines describe the curriculum precisely in five broad areas. They are accompanied by guidelines for assessing and measuring pupils' progress and learning, and by guidelines for the pupils' personal and social development. There is a large number of recommendations about teaching methods.

The broad areas of the curriculum are divided into attainment outcomes, which are defined for the whole of each pupil's school career from age 5 to 14. For example, practically all pupils should attain level A during the first to the third year.

Applicability of the Official Guidelines

In **England, Wales** and **Northern Ireland**, the governing body and staff of public and private schools alike enjoy considerable autonomy in determining how much time to allot to each subject and in the choice of teaching methods and materials. (29.4% of all pupils attend private schools.)

In **Scotland**, there is no legal framework to impose an educational programme on private schools, but these schools are subject to inspection by HM Inspectorate in the same way as public schools.

3. Criteria for the development of primary school curricula

These criteria are established to guide the development of educational programmes. They are based on official instructions such as a law or a Ministerial decision. Generally these guidelines indicate how flexible or how precise the educational programme should be. Sometimes they specify which aspects of the education system should be addressed in the educational programme (such as management of content, subject areas, methods or assessment tools). Sometimes they reiterate some guiding principles such as continuity, coherence or progression.

National data on the criteria for the development of curricula

Belgium

In the **French** and **German-speaking Communities**, subjects are determined by decree (reading, writing, basic mathematics, basic language skills, geography, Belgian history, the elements of drawing, notions of natural science, notions of hygiene, singing, physical education, road safety, manual activities and introductory aesthetics).

In the educational programme of the **Flemish Community** the following must be included:

- basic objectives, distinguishing cognitive, affective and motor skills;
- the starting point (prerequisites, skills required before the subject can be tackled, etc.);
- course content;
- suggestions about methodology;
- methods and indicators for assessment;
- bibliography and documentation.

Over and above these, in the light of new demands for quality, the following must be added:

- workload *(studiebelasting)*;
- minimum objectives *(eindtermen)* which must form a frame of reference for the study plan;
- continuity and coherence in terminology.

Denmark

Parliament takes decisions on teaching subjects (law on the *Folkeskole*). The Education Minister lays down educational objectives, the content of teaching subjects and guidelines both for the curriculum and for teaching methods. Nevertheless, each school can prepare its own work plan.

Germany

Educational programmes must conform to the values and to the educational and pedagogical objectives set out in the Constitution and the Education Act of the *Land*. They must be neutral with respect to religion and politics and must not be based on any particular scientific theory. In addition, they must be presented clearly, must allow teachers scope for flexibility in their teaching and maintain a balance in the workload imposed on pupils.

Greece

The criteria which are taken into account are educational. These criteria are based on children's psychological development, new teaching methods and new social structures resulting from economic and cultural developments.

Spain

The minimum educational programme must not take up more than 55% of the school timetable in communities where the official language is not Castilian or 65% in communities where it is Castilian.

France

The Ministry of Education lays down the school programmes and educational approaches.

Italy

Teaching subjects are defined by Italian law. The teacher develops the class programme starting from the following objectives laid down by law: movement from interdisciplinary courses to subjects, living together in a democracy, cultural literacy.

Luxembourg

The criteria are defined by the plan of studies for primary education which is issued by the Ministry of Education.

The Netherlands

The Primary-Education Act defines the objectives of primary education and underpins the regulations on the organisation of that stage of education. The school's work-plan sets in focus for the teaching staff an overall view of the organisation and the content of their work in education (the development of the objectives of the school and choice of subjects and teaching methods). Subject content and teaching methods are not prescribed by law.

Portugal

The *Lei de Bases do Sistema Educativo* is the legal basis which lays down the "Curriculum Structure". This law is the frame of reference for the development of the programme of the first cycle of basic education (objectives, subjects, content, educational experiences). This programme implies the introduction of active learning experiences which guarantee the pupil's right to success in school.

United Kingdom

In **England, Wales** and **Northern Ireland**, the Secretaries of State have proposed the following criteria:

- rather than being provided with detailed proposals, schools should be given significant opportunities to develop their educational programme according to their own schemes of work;
- a broad and flexible statutory framework;
- objectives described in terms of the competencies expected to be attained at the end of each cycle;
- recommendations specifying the ten attainment levels for objectives not included in the Act;
- recommendations for the identification and guidance of children who require additional assistance;
- taking into consideration of what has been learned about child development, good educational practices and the results of research;
- concern for artistic training.

In **Scotland**, the curriculum is based on five principles:

- breadth (appropriate experiences to ensure that a comprehensive range of areas of learning are covered);
- balance (in the time devoted to different subject areas and a diversity of learning experiences);
- continuity (of learning adapted to children's earlier education);
- coherence (links between the areas of learning);
- progression (towards attainable goals).

4. Frequency of review of programmes

The frequency at which educational programmes are reviewed is relatively variable. There are no rules governing how often an educational programme must be reviewed. Reworking of educational programmes takes place when the need arises in response to Ministerial or legal decisions. Only in the Netherlands have arrangements been made for a periodic review of the part of the educational programme defined by the schools once every two years. Changes can be made by law (as for example in Denmark, Spain, the Netherlands and the United Kingdom) or by the Minister (as for example in Belgium, Luxembourg and France).

The form taken by the educational programme varies according to the country and the times. Sometimes a single document presents the content of all subjects, and sometimes there are as many documents as subjects and these are published over several years. New guidelines for all subjects appear to be published much less frequently than changes in the educational programmes as the result of official recommendations with respect to a specific subject. These are not included in the following table 15.

Table 15 : Date of the last review of the programme

Belgium - French and German-speaking Communities - Flemish Community	 1985 Programme 1992 Programme	
Denmark	1993 Act	
Germany	Regular review and publication by the *Länder* Ministries in the form of regulations or decrees	
Greece	1993 Presidential Decree	1982 Presidential Decree
Spain	1990 Act	1970 Act
France	1985 Programme + 1991 document on "cycles"	
Ireland	1971 Programme	
Italy	1985 Presidential Decree	
Luxembourg	1989 Study Plan	1964 Study Plan
Netherlands	1985 Act	1920 Act
Portugal	1990 Decree - Law	
United Kingdom - England, Wales - Scotland - Northern Ireland	 1988 Act 1989 Order	

National data on frequency of programme reviews

Belgium

The last educational programme has been in effect since 1985 in the **French** and **German-speaking Communities**. A definition of the competencies pupils are expected to have acquired by age 8 and age 12 is currently in progress.

Educational programmes are currently being reviewed in the **Flemish Community** with the introduction of minimal competencies which must be acquired.

Denmark

New educational programmes appear every 10 to 15 years, but there are great differences in frequency in different subjects.

Germany

Educational programmes are reviewed at regular intervals every few years at the request of the central Ministry.

Greece

Presidential decrees dealing with different subject areas are spread out over a considerable period of time. The most important presidential decree is that of 1982, even if since that date a series of decrees has been published concerning changes in various subjects. The most recent dates from 1993. Educational programmes change in response to general reforms of the education system or current needs.

Spain

Educational programmes are reviewed whenever the need is felt. The law on general education dates from 1970. New educational programmes have been implemented in the first two cycles. The law on the general structure and organisation of the education system dates from 1990 and also provides recommendations concerning the content of education and teaching methods.

France

The publication of an educational programme depends on the Minister. The last educational programmes for each subject date from 1985. The documents "Cycles in Primary School" date from 1991.

Ireland

The present programme has been in force since 1971. There is an on-going reform of the programmes. It is undertaken by the National Council for Curriculum and Assessment.

Italy

Educational programmes have to be reviewed at regular intervals.

Luxembourg

No frequency is laid down. The last educational plan, from 1964, was replaced by the 1989 plan.

The Netherlands

The authorities in each school, on the recommendation of the teaching staff, produce a school work-plan at least once every two years, and define an activities plan every year.

Portugal

Each educational programme remains in effect for at least four years.

United Kingdom

In **England, Wales** and **Northern Ireland**, changes are decided upon in response to needs.

In **Scotland**, changes are also decided upon in response to needs revealed by inspection or in line with the various Government education policies.

5. Mechanisms to control the implementation of educational programmes

Control mechanisms can operate at different levels. The first level is the responsibility of the head teacher or the local authorities responsible for the management of the school.

The second operates under the control of an inspectorate organised at the national level or within a region, district, area or even school system. This kind of evaluation of the way programmes are implemented is common in the different Member States of the European Union.

The third level of control takes the form of a national test at the end of a cycle as, for example, in the United Kingdom (with the exception of Scotland), or at the beginning of a new cycle as in France. In Portugal, an examination of the competencies which pupils have attained is arranged at the end of each cycle. In these countries, the data collected are used at the national level for purposes of monitoring the educational system.

Table 16 : Types of control of the implementation of an educational programme

	B	DK	D	GR	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	P	UK	
												Engl. Wales N.I.	Scot.
National examination						X					X	X	
Inspection	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Local authority	X	X	X									X	

National data on the mechanisms to control the implementation of educational programmes

Belgium

Local Authorities

In the **French** and **German-speaking Communities**, each administrative body is responsible for the observance of educational programmes in its own schools.

In the **Flemish Community**, the head of the school oversees the implementation of the study plan in the classes. In future, supervisors will help to introduce the study plan.

Inspectorate

The inspectorate in the **French** and **German-speaking Communities** is responsible for overseeing education in the compulsory parts of the programme and the level of the teaching, through visiting classes and submitting reports to the Minister.

In future, the inspectorate in the **Flemish Community** will determine how well the minimal objectives are being respected by inspecting each school every six years. In subsidised primary schools, the inspectorate is independent of the Community.

Denmark

Local Authorities

Municipal authorities are responsible for supervising schools. Each private school has attached to it an inspector chosen by the parents or appointed by the municipality.

Germany

Inspectorate

The responsible inspector and the head of each primary school must ensure that the educational programmes are adhered to.

Private susbsitute schools *(Ersatzschulen)* are subject to state inspection in the same way as public schools. They are not however obliged to follow state programmes.

Greece

Inspectorate

Inspectors are responsible for overseeing both private and public schools (their composition, numbers of teachers and pupils, etc. and sometimes school textbooks). They work in co-operation with teachers and take into account their difficulties and problems in implementing educational programmes.

Spain

Inspectorate

The inspectorate oversees educational programmes in various establishments and sees to it that the compulsory elements of each project are adhered to in both public and private schools.

France

Inspectorate

The inspectorates have a role in monitoring and evaluation.

National Examination

A systematic national evaluation of what the pupils have learned at the beginning of the *cours élémentaire* 2 and on entering *collège* makes it possible to form an aggregate assessment of how well the material and skills presented in the educational programmes are being learned. This evaluation is not an examination. It aims to help teachers to put into practice differentiated teaching which takes into account differences among pupils.

Ireland

Inspectorate

State inspectors provide supervision in public schools. Private primary schools are not subject to this inspection.

Italy

Local Authorities

The heads of primary schools operate at the local level.

Inspectorate

Inspectors operate at the provincial or regional level in both public and legally recognised private schools.

Luxembourg

Inspectorate

Supervision is exercised for all the cycles by the primary school inspectorate.

The Netherlands

Inspectorate

The school inspectorate of the Ministry of Education and Science is responsible for both public and private schools.

Portugal

Inspectorate

The general inspectorate of education is divided into units which visit schools and make reports. If necessary, they propose regulations. They control both public schools and private schools under contract.

National Examination

There are plans to conduct a national, regional and local evaluation, for which the Ministry of Education will be responsible, to determine how well the minimal objectives are adhered to.

United Kingdom

Local Authorities

In **England, Wales** and **Northern Ireland**, the local authorities only intervene in schools which are their responsibility. The head teacher and the school governing body take action in other cases.

Inspectorate

Schools are inspected every four years in **England, Wales** and **Northern Ireland**. All schools are subject to inspection.

In **Scotland**, Inspectors of Schools are given the responsibility of evaluating the implementation of the educational programmes throughout the educational system.

National Examination

Evaluation of pupils takes place in all the schools in **England, Wales** and **Northern Ireland** at the end of each cycle.

6. Definition of course content

6.1. Subjects taught (ages 6-9)

A comparison of the lists of compulsory subjects in the different countries (see the tables of the amount of time allotted to each subject at the beginning of primary school and at age 9) does not reveal any great discrepancies in the major subject areas. The educational programmes in all countries include courses in the mother tongue, mathematics, manual and artistic activities, and physical education. Outside these areas of study which are common to all, discrepancies appear primarily in the way science is taught. In fact, under a variety of names (such as "environmental studies", "environmental sciences", or "introduction to the sciences") there can be found either the traditional subjects (such as geography, history and science) or the traditional subjects with the addition of other subjects. The tables presenting the compulsory subjects in detail and the time allocated to each subject at the beginning of primary education and at age 9 are given in Annex III.

Greece, Luxembourg and Northern Ireland preserve the traditional names. Belgium (French Community) adds a course in road safety. Greece adds social and political education; Portugal, a course in the school environment; France, a course in civics; Ireland, courses in civics and health education; the Netherlands, courses in civics, health education and road safety; and Belgium (Flemish and German-speaking Communities) adds courses in civics and road safety.

Subjects like multicultural education and "the European dimension" are included in this group of subjects in Spain and Scotland. It is to be emphasised, however, that the importance of these subjects is not defined by the educational programmes. In Germany, they are taught in the context of cross-disciplinary courses or appropriate subjects. In Italy, these subjects are likely to be included within the subject area of the social sciences. In the United Kingdom, these subjects are included among the "cross-curricular themes". On the other hand, Denmark tends to reduce this subject area to nature studies and technology.

New technologies are practically never included in educational programmes (except in Spain). In some countries, however, technology is taught as a compulsory subject (Denmark, United Kingdom).

The situation during the course of primary education (about the age of 9) reveals greater disparities among the countries, particularly in the amount of time devoted to the mother tongue and to the sciences. Learning a second language appears in the programme in several countries (Greece, Spain, and Luxembourg where the time devoted to this area of the curriculum is very large). In Germany, learning a foreign language is possible from the third year of primary school.

6.2. Number of teaching hours per subject (ages 6-9)

In many countries, the educational programmes and official guidelines allow the teacher or school the freedom to decide on the amount of time to be allocated to different subjects. This is the situation in Ireland, the Netherlands, Portugal and England and Wales. In Italy, only the minimum time to be allocated to subjects being taught is laid down at national level, and the actual division of time is decided upon by the teachers *(collegio dei docenti)*.

In other countries, to the extent that the educational programmes lay down the allocation of time among the subjects, it is possible to compare the amount of the time given to different subjects. Graphs 13a and b show the number of hours per subject and per year at the beginning of primary education and at 9 years old. These graphs are made up on the basis of multiplying the proportion of the time to be allocated to different subjects by the number of teaching hours in the year.

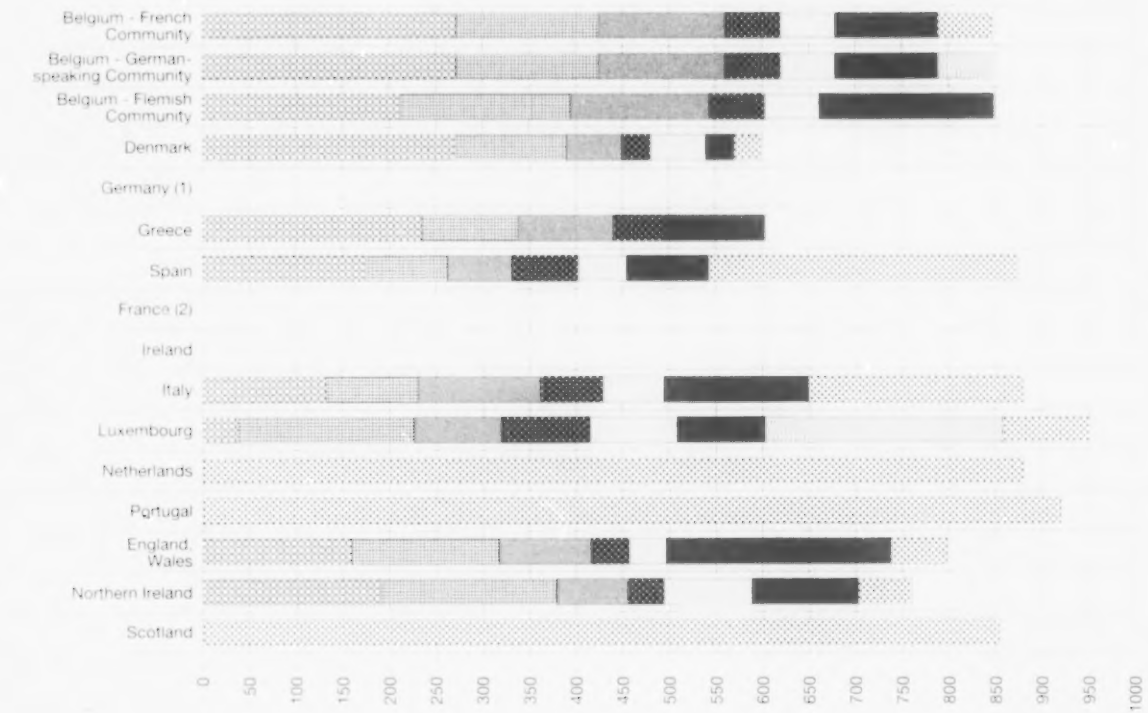
Considerable differences are to be noted in the time set aside for the learning of the mother tongue at the beginning of primary education. If Luxembourg, which gives a considerable amount of time from the beginning to learning German, is excluded from the comparison, the number of hours per year varies between 132 in Italy and 272 in Belgium.

There are even more differences in the amount of time devoted to the study of mathematics. The number of hours taught each year ranges from 87.5 to 189, or twice the lowest number. There are similarly large differences when we look at the time devoted to art, manual activities and physical education. Three times as many hours can be allocated to those areas of the curriculum in one country as in another.

Nevertheless, it is the amount of time they devote to science which shows the greatest differences among countries. Some recommend that it should be given 30 hours, others 240. This divergence relating to the amount of time given to the subject in the school timetable is additional to the differences mentioned above in the content covered by this broad subject area.

Graph 13 : NUMBER OF TEACHING HOURS PER SUBJECT PER YEAR

a. At the beginning of primary education (about age 6)



Flexible programme

Foreign languages

Human and exact sciences

Religion/humanistic ethics

PE/games

Art education

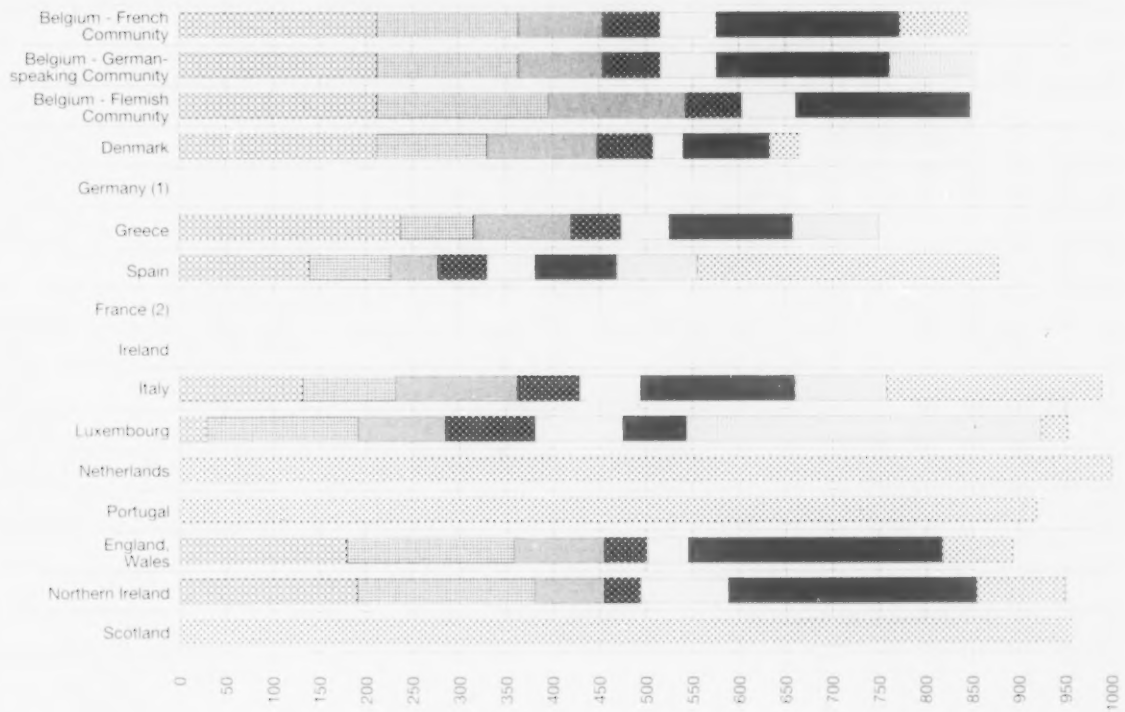
Mathematics

Mother tongue

(1) In Germany, the situation varies from one *Land* to another.

(2) In France, subjects are divided into three groups, with a flexible timetable within each of these fixed groups.

b. In the course of primary education (about age 9)



(1) In Germany, the situation varies from one *Land* to another.

(2) In France, subjects are divided into three groups, with a flexible timetable within each of these fixed groups.

7. Social aims in the school programmes

All the countries include social aims, usually of a very general nature, in their school programmes. Very often, these goals are associated with the development of the children's personalities - particularly autonomy and a sense of responsibility - and with their relationships with others (respect for others and an awareness of differences etc.).

Some countries also address questions of international integration and respect for the environment, or preparation for adult life in a democratic society which is both responsible and involved.

National data on the social aims in school programmes

Belgium

In the **French Community**:

Autonomy, responsibility, co-operation.

Development of emotional balance and social involvement.

Individual development.

In the **German-speaking Community**:

Respect for democratic values, working together.

Autonomy, sense of responsibility.

In the **Flemish Community**:

Autonomy, sense of initiative.

Co-operation, civic duty.

Confidence in a life guided by a democratic vision.

Sustained reflection on values and norms.

Exposure to the world: to be able to find their way in the future world, to be ready to build a better world.

(These broad concepts are translated into very specific behaviourial objectives.)

Denmark

Awareness, imagination and a desire to learn.

Confidence in their abilities.

Understanding of other cultures and the interaction between people and nature.

Active participation, consciousness of rights and duties in a society characterised by democracy and liberty.

Germany

Respect for the principal of equality of opportunity.

To provide the means to acquire the capacity to think, learn and work completely independently.

To familiarise pupils with life in society.

To lay the foundations of knowledge and skills.

To teach pupils to be polite, understanding, tolerant, ready to give service and responsible.

Greece

To become familiar with moral, religious, humanitarian, national and other values.

Spain

Autonomy.

Sense of initiative.

Balanced and constructive relationships with others.

Solidarity, respect for difference.

France

Construction of the personality.

Autonomy.

Learning about social life.

Ireland

To provide the means to enter further education, to accept responsibility and to enter the adult world.

Italy

Initiative, autonomy, responsibility.

Awareness of different kinds of difference and exclusion.

Sensitivity to the problems of health and hygiene.

Respect for the environment, for other living beings, for institutions and public utilities, road safety and the saving of energy.

Reflection in a spirit of international understanding and co-operation, especially about developments in Europe and the process of integration.

Luxembourg

Tolerance, acceptance of others, honesty and openness.

Autonomy, responsibility.

Self-confidence.

Persistence, order and discipline.

The Netherlands

Emotional and intellectual development.

Development of creativity.

Acquisition of social, cultural and physical skills.

Development in a multicultural society.

Portugal

To develop physical and social maturity.

To develop positive social attitudes both within the family and in the outside world.

United Kingdom

In **England, Wales** and **Northern Ireland**:

Importance of spiritual, moral and cultural development.

Preparation for responsibilities and for adult life.

Education for mutual understanding (**Northern Ireland**).

In **Scotland**:

Included in the guidelines on personal and social development.

8. Specific guidance on methods

In their educational programmes and official guidelines, many countries stress the importance of differentiation in education and a system of teaching which respects the learning patterns of pupils. Several countries recommend establishing a teaching system in which the different subject areas are integrated in meaningful situations by organising them by theme or in a project, or by presenting them in terms of problem situations to be resolved.

Less frequent mention is made in the official documents of support for children experiencing difficulties, the setting up of groups within the class and learning through play.

Table 17

	B			DK	D	GR	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	P	UK	
	Fr. Com.	Ge.-sp. Com.	Fl. Com.											Engl. Wales N.I.	Scot.
Differentiated teaching	X	X	X	X		X	X	X		X	X	X		X	X
Integration of subjects	X	X	X	X	X	X	X			X	X	X	X		X
Group activities	X	X	X		X	X	X				X	X		X	X
Pupil support	X	X	X		X	X				X	X	X			X
Learning through play		X			X							X			X

National data on specific instructions on method in programmes and official directives

Belgium

The educational programme in the **French** and **German-speaking Communities** recommends a necessary differentiation, variety in teaching methods, adoption of concrete or abstract methods, depending on the personalities and learning styles of the pupils, and also learning support.

Ministerial circulars develop these general principles by recommending group activities, learning situations to encourage decision-making about the order in which to do things, negotiation about the kind of work to be done, interaction among pupils, a general, functional, participatory and differentiated approach to teaching, maintenance of the stability of the teaching staff, co-operation among teachers and dialogue with the parents.

The educational programme in the **Flemish Community** includes a section on methods which specifies the methods to be used in achieving the objectives (such as teaching materials and audio-visual aids, etc.). However, it is the schools' responsibility to give these methodological recommendations concrete form.

Denmark

The law emphasises the way in which differentiation can take place in teaching. Teachers must begin at the level of the needs and development of each pupil in order to define what that pupil should be able to learn. However, any adaptation of teaching to the different abilities of the pupils must adhere to all the objectives of the school. All children must, therefore, have the opportunity to work on the essential aspects of the content in the plan, and the teacher must see to it that the children are constantly confronted with new challenges, whether they be intellectual, emotional, social or related to values and attitudes.

By law, the objectives must be achieved by a process of co-operation between teacher and children which must constantly be adjusted during the children's school career.

Germany

The educational programmes contain instructions concerning the teaching methods to be employed. These consist of general principles to be applied to all courses or of concrete instructions or recommendations relevant to the content and objectives of specific courses. Educational games and learning through play have a leading role in the first two years. Courses are linked to broader themes to make them more lively. The process is oriented towards a comprehensive understanding of what is being learned. Certain courses are offered to pupils individually or in small groups.

Remedial courses serve to compensate for the differences in levels of development and ability which cannot be fully dealt with in class.

Greece

The presidential decree 462/91 provides for learning support for children in primary school. It is organised in special classes which take in small numbers of pupils for a time during the day for one or two hours per day, with a maximum of six hours per week.

According to the official programmes of study and guidance in methods from the Pedagogical Institute, differentiation of teaching, integration of subjects and group activities can be organised (as necessary) in the light of the teachers' training and under the supervision of the School Council.

Spain

Official texts specify that the teaching of the different subjects at this stage must be comprehensive and integrative. Teaching will be individual and will be adapted to each child's learning patterns. The aim is to develop the children's aptitude for learning by themselves and for working in groups by introducing them to a knowledge of the real world in conformity with the principles of scientific method.

France

Teaching cycles have been established responding to the concern to adapt educational activities to the pupils and to permit them to progress at different rates.

Ireland

The curriculum of the National Schools is focused on the needs of the child; it recommends flexibility in teaching methods and in the teaching time devoted to subjects.

Italy

The official documents containing the school programme provide for the organisation of teaching to call upon learning support activities and teaching methods which are differentiated according to the specific areas of intervention. They also give importance to techniques which promote multicultural communication. Schools must implement the cultural and educational project presented in the educational programmes in a process of continuous evolution, beginning with a unified curriculum before subjects are introduced and culminating in the development of progressively more differentiated subject areas.

Luxembourg

The educational programmes and official guidelines provide for an active learning environment adapted to the interests and needs of the child in which the development and special aptitudes of each child are taken into account. The teaching must be adapted in terms of content, the objectives of learning experiences and teaching methods to the pace of growth and maturation, the ability to adapt and the attention span of the children, as well as to the varying amounts of time required for the acquisition of knowledge.

The Netherlands

Teaching methods must be included in the work-plan of every school.

Portugal

The educational programme recommends that the organisation of school work during the first cycle should contribute to cultural exchanges and the sharing of information. Interaction and the exchange of knowledge and experiences are stimulated in order to encourage pupils to take the initiative. A subject called *Area-Escola* seeks to make concrete what the pupils learn through multi-disciplinary activities and projects, by relating the school to its environment and through the personal and social development of the pupils.

United Kingdom

In **England** and **Wales**, official documents give no guidance. In **Northern Ireland**, the official programme underlines the importance of differentiation in teaching and group activities within the class.

In **Scotland**, the guidelines make reference to a balance between class, individual and group activities. Each document in the national guidelines gives advice on methods linked to the content.

9. Subject textbooks

Textbooks are very often published by commercial firms. Editing is principally carried out by teachers, heads of schools, inspectors or authors specialising in education. Depending on the country, textbooks are published either for all subjects or only for the most important ones.

Educational programmes generally give teachers freedom to use or not to use a textbook (except in Greece) and freedom to choose the textbooks. In some countries, however, the authorities exercise a greater control over the publication of textbooks, either by granting official approval to a private publisher or by publishing these books themselves.

Table 18 : Control over textbooks and levels of freedom of choice in their use

	B	DK	D	GR	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	P	UK	
												Engl. Wales N.I.	Scot.
Prescribed				X									
Limited choice					X*2				X*3		X*2		
Freedom of choice*4	X	X	X			X		X	X	X		X	X
All subjects		X	X	X	X	X			X		X		X
Main subjects	X							X					
Private publications	X	X				X				X	X		
Private publications under control			X*1		X								
Official publications				X					X		X	X	

*1 : Must be approved by the Minister of the *Land* concerned (published list of approved textbooks).
*2 : Must be used for at least four years.
*3 : Textbooks must be approved by the Committee on Teaching (*Commission d'Instruction*).
*4 : For teachers.

10. Official guidance on the composition of classes

Official guidance on the composition of classes notably refers to the degree of homogeneity within groups of pupils. Management of individual differences in learning patterns can be translated into procedures which group pupils by levels within the class itself (heterogeneous classes) or which form special groups outside class (special classes for children with learning difficulties, remedial classes etc.).

The establishment of learning cycles is often connected with regard for different learning patterns within a class.

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

National data on the composition of classes in official directives and programmes

Belgium

The educational programmes of the three Communities do not recommend particular forms of organising or structuring classes. They recommend flexibility which permits differentiation. Schools must develop measures to diminish or eliminate the negative effects of direct and class teaching.

The circulars of the **French** and the **German-speaking Communities** recommend organising teaching in two-year cycles to take learning patterns into account. They also recommend using teams of teachers who share responsibility for the teaching, and who have a shared responsibility in their work for all the children in the cycle.

Denmark

The law provides for dividing schools into classes on the basis of pupil numbers.

Germany

In primary schools, teaching is generally carried out in classes by years. These are formed on the basis of reference standards fixed by the relevant Ministry of Education. The remedial classes intended for pupils who have learning difficulties are organised in small groups; however, this must not result in permanent groups of pupils apart from their own age-group class.

Greece

The presidential decree provides for the organisation of remedial classes (especially in the first and second years of primary school).

Spain

The organisation by cycles forms the basic teaching unit of the programme for assessment and remediation with flexible criteria for grouping pupils. Pupils are divided into mixed groups in order to encourage co-operative learning and to avoid all forms of discrimination. Schools may in no circumstances use pupils' intellectual abilities or school results as criteria for placement in a particular group.

France

The organisation in multi-year cycles with objectives fixed for a period of three years makes it possible for schools to group pupils together in several different ways: for example, grouping by age; with one teacher responsible for a class; with one teacher in each cycle responsible for children of the same age; with one teacher in each cycle responsible for children of different ages; with interchange among teachers and the creation of flexibility among groups.

Italy

The circulars recommend that schools should not group pupils together by level or social origin, but leave together, as far as possible, the groups that come from the same nursery school. In the first cycle, there are provisions for several teachers to be involved in teaching groups of pupils from different classes in a teaching system of open classes.

Luxembourg

Ministerial circulars give guidance on the organisation of classes and the pupil-teacher ratio.

The Netherlands

The organisation of classes appears in each school's work-plan.

Portugal

The criteria for the make-up of the first cycle are based on educational psychology. In the second cycle, the criteria are left to the judgement of the school's teaching council.

United Kingdom

There is no guidance provided in official documents. Nevertheless, in **Scotland**, certain approaches for particular stages may be recommended at an official level.

B. Assessment, Promotion and Certification

Assessment of pupils

In all the countries of the European Union, continuous assessment of the progress of the pupil in the course of primary education is carried out at local level by the class teacher or the teaching team.

Some Member States employ additional methods of external assessment, organised at national level, at certain key points in the school. This is the case in the United Kingdom where objectives in terms of knowledge acquired have been established and are assessed at the end of each key stage (ages 7 and 11 in England and Wales; 8 and 11 in Northern Ireland; 8 and 12 in Scotland). In France, there is a national assessment test in reading, writing and mathematics for monitoring purposes at the beginning of the consolidation cycle (age 9). It is used to detect and remedy weaknesses in the pupils' performance.

In Ireland, the annual report sent to parents is based in part on the pupil's results in standardised national tests.

Schools use standardised national tests for guidance purposes during the transition from primary to secondary school in the Netherlands. A national examination is set at age 11 to select pupils for certain secondary schools, the Grammar School in Northern Ireland and the *Lycée* in Luxembourg. In Denmark, optional examinations are held for pupils at the end of the *Folkeskole*.

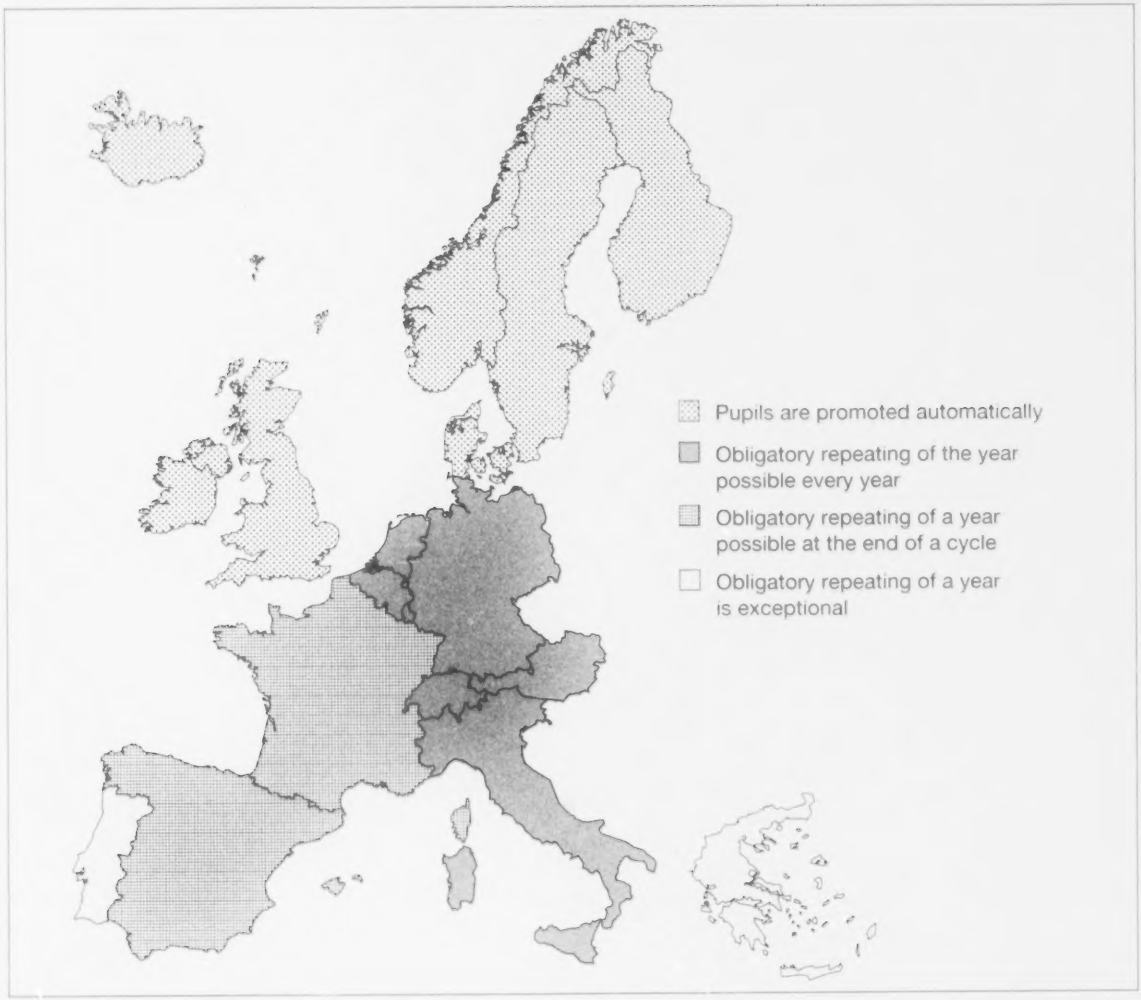
Moving from class to class

In Denmark, Greece - with certain exceptions - Ireland and the United Kingdom, pupils move from one class to the next automatically and without any examination throughout the whole duration of the primary school. In the other Member States, repeating a class is still possible for pupils who are having difficulties.

Repeating a class for a year is the practice in Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Belgium (only once for each year of the first cycle, although exceptions can be made), Italy (though reason must be shown), and in Germany.

Pupils can be required to repeat at the end of a cycle of two or more years in France and Spain (only once during the primary cycle, although exceptions can be made) and in Portugal where, in some exceptional cases, repeating a year is still possible after the second year of school.

Promotion to the Next Class in Primary Education


Pupils are promoted automatically
Obligatory repeating of the year possible every year
Obligatory repeating of a year possible at the end of a cycle
Obligatory repeating of a year is exceptional

Certification

In most Member States, pupils who are completing primary education (about the age of 12) do not receive a certificate, except in Belgium, Greece and Italy. In Italy, pupils receive a certificate *(licenza elementare)* after sitting an examination. In Belgium (apart from the German-speaking Community), it is possible to gain a certificate on the basis of work done during the year, but pupils usually sit an examination set by the teacher. In some schools pupils may sit a cantonal examination (organised by the inspectorate). In Greece, the certificate is awarded without an examination.

Table 19a : Use of standardised tests at national level

	In the course of primary education (for monitoring)	On transition from primary to secondary (for orientation, selection or certification)
Belgium		Cantonal, (certification) optional
Denmark		At end of *Folkeskole*, optional
Germany		
Greece		
Spain post-reform		
France	At beginning of 3rd year	
Ireland	Each year, supplements internal assessment	
Italy	Since 1992 maths and Italian (experimental)	
Luxembourg		At end of primary, selection and orientation
Netherlands		At end of primary, orientation, optional
Portugal		
United Kingdom - England, Wales and Northern Ireland - Scotland	At age 7 and 11 in England and Wales, at age 8 in Northern Ireland At age 8 and 12	At age 11, selection in Northern Ireland

Table 19b : Promotion

	Automatic	Repeating possible each year	Repeating possible at end of cycle
Belgium		X, but only one repeat in any class in the primary stage, except with special dispensation	
Denmark	X		
Germany		X non-promotion possible only after the 2nd year	
Greece	X save in exceptional cases		
Spain post-reform			Once with some exceptions
France			Extension
Ireland	X		
Italy		X	
Luxembourg		X	
Netherlands		X	
Portugal		X exceptionally from the end of year 2	X
United Kingdom	X		

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

Table 19c : Certification on completion of the primary cycle

	Final certification with examination	Final certification without examination	No certification
Belgium	X		
Denmark		At the end of the *Folkeskole* (optional examination)	
Germany			X
Greece		X	
Spain post-reform			X
France			X
Ireland			X
Italy	X		
Luxembourg			X
Netherlands			X
Portugal		At the end of "basic education" (3rd cycle)	At the end of the 1st and 2nd cycles
United Kingdom			X

National data on assessment, promotion and certification

Belgium

Assessment

Assessment is part of the teaching process and each school retains complete responsibility for it. Assessment is one of the areas in which the pedagogical freedom of each educational network is guaranteed. Therefore, provided that it adheres to the laws and official decrees, each organising authority can define the type and method of assessment it wishes to use, as well as the way it communicates the results.

Throughout the year, teachers use continuous formative assessment to monitor the progress of their pupils. At the end of the school year, the teacher can use tests to assess pupils. The teacher or team of teachers assesses the year's work and the results of the tests (if any) at the end of the year to decide whether or not to allow a pupil to move on to the next class. In this, the pupil's skills of analysis and synthesis, ability to think independently, co-operative attitude and willingness to make an effort and to produce good work must all be taken into account. Report cards regularly keep the children and their parents informed of test results, academic progress, behaviour in class and personal development.

Promotion

It is possible for a child to repeat classes each year, even within a stage, but only twice in the course of primary education in the **Flemish Community**. Pupils who have learning difficulties can receive special and individualised assistance from a remedial teacher.

Certification

When they have completed their primary education, pupils receive a *certificat d'études de base* (*C.E.B.* or certificate of basic education). Schools may award the *C.E.B.* themselves as long as they adhere to the terms of the law, or they may enter pupils for a cantonal examination administered by the inspectorate. Parents may also register their children for the cantonal examination (minimum age of 11 by

31 December of that year). Anyone who has not received a *C.E.B.* may apply to the inspectorate to sit the cantonal examination. This certificate can also be awarded to anyone who successfully completes either the first year of secondary school *(classe d'accueil B)* or a second year of vocational training, even though he or she did not obtain it in primary school.

Denmark

Assessment

Schools inform pupils and their parents regularly (at least twice a year) of each pupil's progress, although marks are not given. The concept of a numeric mark is not introduced until the end of the period of compulsory schooling. Only in the three final years (eighth, ninth and tenth) are marks given in those subjects in which the pupil will take a leaving examination.

Promotion

Only very rarely and with their parents' permission do pupils repeat a year. Movement from one class to the next is normally automatic.

Certification

On leaving the *Folkeskole*, all pupils receive a leaving certificate showing the subjects taken, the overall marks received for the year's work and the results of the examinations taken. There is no minimum mark and each subject is assessed separately. The examination is optional and the pupils themselves decide whether or not they wish to sit it.

Written examinations are set and marked at national level, while oral examinations are set at national level but marked at local level.

Written examinations are standardised, and are set by the Ministry of Education. The teacher in each subject administers the oral examination in the presence of a teacher from another school.

Germany

Assessment

During the first two years of primary school, assessment is carried out using a report book in which each pupil's progress and abilities in each subject are noted. Only from the end of the third year, at the earliest, do pupils receive a report card in which what they have lear ed is more closely assessed in relation to the rest of the class.

Promotion

All pupils are promoted automatically from the first to the second year of primary school. After the second year, they are promoted from one year to the next on the basis of their results.

Certification

There is no formal certificate to mark the completion of primary school. Pupils must continue to attend school until they have completed their compulsory education.

Greece

Assessment

The teacher regularly asse,sses the children's progress throughout the year. There are no examinations during the first four years.

Promotion

During the final two years, tests of comprehension are made up by the class teacher and administered each term. The results of these tests are not necessarily taken into account in the overall assessment for the year. Pupils are promoted automatically from one class to the next. The law provides for learning support for pupils who are having difficulty. If pupils miss more than half a school year, they must sit an examination. Failure in such an examination will result in the pupil having to repeat the year.

Certification

A leaving certificate is given to pupils on completion of their primary education which grants them access to lower secondary school. There is no final examination.

Spain after the reform

Assessment

Assessment is continuous and is based on the pupil's achievements throughout the cycle. Scholastic achievement is measured against a level to be attained by the end of each cycle.

Promotion

In principal, movement from stage to stage is automatic. Pupils are only allowed to repeat a class under exceptional circumstances. If the level of a pupil's achievements turns out to be too low, the head of the school and the class teacher may, after obtaining the opinion of the teachers, the local team of educational psychologists, the parents and the inspectors, decide that the class is to be repeated. A pupil may not repeat more than once in primary school. The decision to make a pupil repeat a year must be accompanied by individualised tutoring.

Certification

There is no leaving certificate or final examination at the end of primary school.

France

Assessment

The competences which pupils must acquire in each cycle have been defined. These include both subject competences and cross-curricular competences, related to the children's attitudes, to the formation of basic concepts of space and time, and the learning of method. In addition, special emphasis is given to competences in the area of language skills.

The teacher or team of teachers assesses the pupils' learning continuously and regularly, but there are no examinations in order to pass from one class to the next. Continuous assessment of the pupils can take the form of written tests, particularly from the fourth year of primary school *(cours intermédiaire)*. The pupils' progress, however, is assessed through observation of their work throughout the whole year.

The results of these regular assessments are noted in the pupil's report booklet *(livret scolaire)*, a medium of communication among the teachers and between the teachers and the parents. It follows pupils if they change school. Suggestions about how long the pupil should remain in a cycle and decisions about promotion also appear in it.

National assessment tests in reading, writing and mathematics are administered at the beginning of the consolidation cycle *(cycle des approfondissements)* of primary education. The aim is to help the teacher identify weaknesses in pupils at the beginning of the year and to deal with them by appropriate teaching and by setting up remedial groups.

Promotion

Pupils cannot be required to repeat a class during a cycle. The promotion of a pupil in each cycle is decided upon by the Council of Teachers of the Cycle on the recommendation of the pupil's teacher. The amount of time spent in each primary school cycle can be increased or decreased by a year.

Certification

There is no certificate or final examination at the end of primary school.

Ireland

Assessment

Teachers assess their pupils' progress with the help of standardised tests prepared by the Teachers' Training Institute in Dublin or available on the specialised market, and oral and written examinations dealing with subjects in the educational programme which they prepare themselves. Assessment is also based on observation of the pupils by the teacher. Parents receive an annual report of each pupil's progress in the different areas of the educational programme. This report is partly based on the results of the national tests.

Promotion

Pupils are promoted automatically from one class to the next. There is no repeating of classes. Pupils with difficulties have the benefit of learning support from special teachers. A psychological service is available in primary schools.

Certification

There is neither an official examination nor a certificate at the end of primary school. Preliminary guidance is given at the end of pupils' primary education based on their performance at school. Advice is given by the head teacher and the teacher.

Italy

Assessment

Pupils are assessed and observed all through the year by the teachers. The assessment appears in reports written in the form of personal files. These provide a complete profile of the pupil's competence and personality.

Promotion

Promotion from one class to the next depends on the abilities and motivation of the pupils. If teachers recommend that a pupil repeat a class, they must show in front of the Inter-class Council that they have very good reason.

Certification

At the end of primary education, the schools administer an examination called the *licenza elementare*. It consists of two written tests and an oral. The examination committee is made up of the teachers responsible for the class and two others. Pupils who pass this examination receive a certificate of the same name, which gives access to secondary school.

Luxembourg

Assessment

Pupils are assessed continuously by the teacher. From the first year, there are periodic tests called school exercises *(devoirs scolaires)* in each subject, but they do not constitute formal examinations. Three times a year, the pupils receive a report card containing an assessment of their work during the term.

Promotion

The class teacher decides on the basis of the pupil's oral participation and results obtained in the different pieces of set work throughout the year whether to promote to the next class or to require a repetition of the year. Where the decision is challenged, parents can appeal to the inspector of primary education.

Certification

At the end of the year, pupils receive a report card, which attests to their success in the year and grants admission to the next class. However, there is a national examination at the end of the sixth year of primary school for admission to the secondary stage. Only pupils who pass this examination can be admitted to the general academic stream. There is no examination to demonstrate success at the end of the primary school and pupils do not receive a certificate.

The Netherlands

Assessment

Teachers regularly assess pupils and prepare report cards indicating the pupils' individual progress. Assessment is continuous and is based on the year's work. The decision whether or not a pupil may be promoted to the next class is made on the basis of his or her progress.

National tests administered by *CITO (Centraal Instituut voor Toetsontwikkeling)* are held during the eighth and final year of primary school. The objective is to assess the pupils' knowledge and their ability to succeed in the different streams in secondary school. These tests also assist the head of the school in advising the families on the pupil's academic future. The tests are not compulsory, but slightly more than 60% of the primary schools use them.

Promotion

Moving from one class to the next is decided on the basis of the progress made by the pupil. The law on primary education allows each school to determine for itself the conditions under which it can take decisions about how the weakest pupils can progress (groups at different levels, different working

patterns, support teachers, or it can require children to repeat the year). The teacher, in consultation with the school authorities, takes the decision about pupils moving up a class. Approximately 1-2% of the primary school population repeats each year.

Certification

There is neither a certificate nor an examination at the end of primary school. A report is written on each pupil's progress. It contains recommendations about future courses. Parents are free to follow the advice or reject it.

Portugal

Assessment

The assessment of the pupils in basic education is formative and summative. Formative evaluation, the nature of which is descriptive and qualitative, is based on collection of information relating to the different areas of learning and its purpose is to inform pupils, the person responsible for their studies and others who play a part in their education about how knowledge is being acquired and how the objectives of the programme are being met.

Summative evaluation takes place normally at the end of each term of the school year and at the end of each cycle, but may not be carried out before the second year in school.

At the end of each cycle, the summative evaluation is based on the overall development of the pupil in relation to the objectives of the teaching cycle in question and provides an opportunity for a decision on the promotion or retention of the pupil. This latter course of action is always exceptional and is only used after a specific plan for the pupil's support has been organised.

Certification

The certificate of basic education is awarded, without examination, by the authorities in the school which they have attended to the pupils who have gained the endorsement "admitted" at the end of the final summative assessment of the third cycle.

United Kingdom

Assessment

The National Curriculum introduced by the education reform in **England** and **Wales** in 1988 and in **Northern Ireland** in 1989 sets the standards pupils must achieve at the end of the key stages fixed at ages 7 and 11 in England and Wales, and ages 8 and 11 in Northern Ireland. The pupils' performance must be assessed at the end of these key stages by national tests in conjunction with tests administered by the individual school and the teacher's own assessment.

The schools are required to send parents an annual report which, among other things, details their child's progress in each subject and school activity. Many schools use a Record of Achievement which may include a personal report for commenting on all aspects of the pupil's school activities (academic and non-academic). It is also a requirement for schools to provide a pupil's new school with a record containing specified information about the pupil's achievements when he/she transfers.

Since 1991 in **Scotland**, a national programme of testing has been introduced to assess the individual progress of pupils aged 8 and 12 in English and mathematics.

Promotion

In principle, pupils are promoted automatically from one class to the next in **England, Wales** and **Northern Ireland**. In the second key stage, it is possible to teach the principal subjects in classes divided into groups with differing learning abilities.

In **Scotland**, moving on to the next class is automatic and takes place in the context of continuous assessment. There is no final examination at the end of the primary school.

Certification

There is no certificate awarded at the end of primary education.

A very similar view is held of the organisation for teaching pupils in all the schools of the European Union. In almost all the Member States, classes take in pupils of the same age-group who often remain together right through their primary education.

In general, groups formed in this way are under the responsibility of one teacher for at least that whole school year (except in Italy, where three teachers have the responsibility). The class teacher deals with all the basic subjects. That teacher is often assisted by other specialist teachers for subjects such as the teaching of foreign languages, music, physical education and religious education.

In the rural schools of Spain and Greece, the organisation is conditioned by the number of pupils attending the schools. These schools have to group children of different ages in one single class. The pupils in this case have the same teacher, who teaches all subjects throughout the school.

National data on organisation and staffing

Belgium

Primary education is organised in three successive stages of two years each. Pupils are often grouped together in a class by age. Usually, only one teacher is responsible for teaching all subjects during a school year. Schools may call on specialised instructors to teach classes such as physical education and religion/ethics.

In some schools, the same teacher remains with a class for two to three years. Schools involved in the reform organise cycles (from ages 2 1/2 to 5, 5 to 8, 8 to 10, and 10 to 12). Smoothing the transition from nursery to primary school is very much taken into account in the cycle for children age 5 to 8. When this form of organisation is used, the teaching staff groups pupils of different ages together or separates them into cycles depending on the activities and the lessons that are being taught and on the needs and abilities of the pupils.

Denmark

In the *Folkeskole*, pupils remain together as a class throughout their entire school career. Teaching for each subject is provided by different teachers. The team of teachers generally remains with the class for several years. Whenever possible, the system provides for at least one principal teacher to remain with the same group of pupils for their entire school career.

Germany

The children usually have only one teacher during the first two years, but from the third year complementary subjects are taught by other teachers, in order to prepare pupils for secondary school where they will have a different teacher for each subject.

Greece

Pupils are assigned to classes by age-group except in some non-urban areas where some schools with very few pupils group two or more age-groups in the same class *(Oligothesia Scholeia)*.

Very often, the class teacher will teach the same class for two years or more, especially in the classes for the youngest children. But it is also possible that the teacher will teach a different class each year for particular reasons.

The primary teacher teaches all subjects in the first two classes. From the third class onwards, the teacher teaches all subjects except specialised subjects *(Eidika Mathimata)* such as music and physical education. From the fourth year onwards, English is taught by a specialist secondary teacher.

Spain after the reform

Primary education is divided into three 2-year cycles: ages 6-8, 8-10, and 10-12. Pupils are generally assigned to classes by age and remain in the same group/class throughout primary school. In rural schools, classes include pupils of different ages, for practical reasons. The principal teacher stays with the same group for a whole cycle and teaches all subjects. There may also be teachers of foreign languages, music and physical education.

France

Primary education is subdivided into two cycles:

- the basic learning cycle *(cycle des apprentissages fondamentaux)*, which begins in the upper *(grande)* section of nursery school and continues for two years at the primary level in the preparatory course *(CP)* and the first year of the primary course *(CE1)*;
- the consolidation cycle *(cycle des approfondissements)*, which lasts for three years and includes the second year of the primary course *(CE2)* and two years of the intermediate course *(CM1* and *CM2)*.

One teacher is responsible for the group/class and for teaching all subjects during a full school year. The teacher generally does not remain with the same group/class from one year to the next. A team of teachers called the Council of Teachers of the Cycle *(conseil des maîtres de cycle)* is responsible for each cycle.

Ireland

Pupils are assigned to classes by age and one teacher is responsible for the class. For practical reasons, one teacher may be responsible for several different age groups.

Italy

The new law (1991) on primary education has profoundly changed responsibility for teaching different subjects. One teacher is no longer responsible for teaching all subjects. The teachers, generally three in number, share two classes. The first teacher is responsible for the humanities, the second for mathematics and sciences, and the third for social sciences. A specialist teacher also comes in for foreign languages. Schools have considerable freedom to organise the way they distribute teaching assignments. The final decision is left to the *collegio dei docenti*, under the direction of the local director of education *(direttore didattico)*, who assesses the possibility of establishing open classes and moving teachers among the classes.

Luxembourg

Pupils are generally grouped in classes by age. In a number of small *communes*, children from two school years are taken together in the same class. In principle, one teacher provides the teaching in all basic subjects. There may be specialised teachers in subjects such as sport, music, religion, the arts, awakening to science and the sciences. In most cases, pupils have a different teacher every two years.

In almost 80% of cases, teachers stay with their class for two years (1st and 2nd years; 3rd and 4th years; and 5th and 6th years).

As the timetable of the teacher (23 lessons per week) is smaller than that of the pupils (30 lessons per week), other specialist teachers have responsibility for subjects like awakening to science, sport, music and the arts. Religious education is provided by specialists trained and administered by the religious authority.

The Netherlands

One teacher is responsible for teaching all basic subjects during a school year. A specialist teacher can come in for certain activities like physical education. Schools have considerable freedom to decide whether or not to assign a different teacher to a class for the next school year.

Portugal

Basic education comprises three separate cycles. Each cycle builds on the one before it.

The first cycle of basic education, sometimes called the primary cycle, lasts for four years and is aimed at children aged from 6 to 9 or 10. During the whole cycle, one single teacher is in charge of the group/class and is responsible for teaching the basic subjects. This teacher can be assisted by another teacher for additional educational activities. Generally, classes take pupils from the same age-group. However, for practical reasons, a class may include pupils of different age groups.

The second cycle of basic education, sometimes called the preparatory cycle, lasts for two years and admits all pupils who have completed the first cycle. This cycle offers an educational programme divided into multi-disciplinary areas. Each subject is taught by a specialist teacher.

The third cycle provides for pupils aged 12 to 15.

United Kingdom

In **England** and **Wales**, the first two years of primary school (for children age 5 to 7) currently constitute the first key stage; the remaining four years (for children age 8 to 11) constitute the second key stage. In **Northern Ireland**, the first four years of primary education (children from age 4 to 8) constitute the first key stage and the remaining three years (from age 9 to 11) the second key stage.

Primary classes group children by age. For practical reasons, however, a class may include children of different ages. As a general rule, one teacher, possibly with the assistance of other teachers, is responsible for all subjects for one or more years in small schools. In some schools, specialised teachers take charge of physical education, music and, very rarely, language courses.

Currently, in **Scotland**, the teaching of all subjects is the responsibility of one teacher per class, on occasion assisted by a learning support teacher, or by a specialist teacher of a particular subject. Especially in towns, children are generally assigned to a class by age, but for practical reasons a teacher may be in charge of a class of mixed ages. The teacher usually only remains with the same group/class for one year. Nevertheless each school can adopt different solutions.

Table 20 : Allocation of teachers

This table presents the usual situation in a particular country. Some initiatives differ from these standards.

	Teacher remains with class for several years	Teacher gives instruction in all basic subjects	Several specialist teachers by subjects
Belgium			
- French Community	No	Yes	
- German-speaking Community	In some cases	Yes	
Denmark	Yes		Yes, one teacher per subject
Germany	Yes, generally for 2 years	Yes, for the first 2 years	Yes, beginning in 3rd year
Greece	No	Yes	
Spain after reform	Yes, for one cycle	Yes	
France	No, but one team per cycle	Yes	
Ireland	No	Yes	
Italy	Normally		3 teachers per class
Luxembourg	Yes, usually for 2 years	Yes	
Netherlands	No	Yes	
Portugal	Yes, for one cycle	Yes, in the first cycle	Yes, in the 2nd cycle
United Kingdom	No	Yes	

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

Chapter III.
TRANSITION TO SECONDARY EDUCATION

1. Conditions for admission to secondary school and orientation

The conditions for admission to secondary education (a certificate of completion of primary education, entrance examination etc.) vary from country to country. Very few countries award certificates; it is the practice only in Belgium, Italy and Greece. Entrance examinations are only set in certain schools in Ireland and the United Kingdom (but not in Scotland). In Luxembourg and in Northern Ireland, selection examinations are administered at national level. In the Netherlands, national examinations have a function in providing educational guidance.

Most countries in the European Union offer a common general education up to age 14, 15 or even 16. Orientation in a stream or type of study at the end of primary education, at about the age of 12, is only possible in Belgium, Germany (at age 10), Luxembourg, Ireland, and the Netherlands. A reform of secondary education aiming to put off the moment of course choice and to organise a general common course is being planned in the last of these countries.

Organisation of Systems of Lower Secondary Education

Single continuous system
Differentiated branches or types of education
Common core curriculum/ Common general education

101

Table 21a : Conditions of admission to the first cycle of secondary education

	Successful completion of primary education	Entrance examination	Allocation to a particular stream of secondary education depending on results
Belgium	X (certificate)	No	No
Denmark		No	No
Germany	X (*Versetzungszeugnis*)	No	Depending on the *Land*, recommendation of primary school or exam. determining the choice of type of secondary school.
Greece	X (certificate)	No	No
Spain post-reform	X	No	No
France	X	No	No
Ireland	X	In some schools	Based on aptitude or success in entrance exam.
Italy	X (certificate)	No	No
Luxembourg	X	National examination	Based on national examination
Netherlands	X	No	Report from primary head teacher, national orientation examination.
Portugal	X	No	No
United Kingdom - England, Wales and Northern Ireland - Scotland		 In some schools No	 No. Based on national examination in Northern Ireland. No

Table 21b : Ages at which choices of direction are made

	Choice at age	Guidance courses on available choices
Belgium - French Community and German-speaking Community - Flemish Community	 12 (traditional) 14 (post-reform) 13	
Denmark	From 16	Beginning at 14
Germany	Beginning at 10, sometimes after an orientation period at 12	
Greece	ca. 15	From 12 to 14
Spain post-reform	ca. 16	
France	ca. 14	
Ireland	ca. 12	
Italy	ca. 14	
Luxembourg	ca. 12	
Netherlands	ca. 13 (transition class from 12 to 13)	
Portugal	ca. 15	Optional at 14
United Kingdom - England, Wales and Northern Ireland - Scotland	 ca. 16 (11 in Northern Ireland) ca. 16	 Between 14 and 16 Between 14 and 16

2. The debate on the transition from primary to secondary school

In many countries there is a debate about the transition from primary to secondary school. Some have sought to resolve the problem by establishing a single education system for the whole of compulsory schooling and have one teacher, called a principal teacher, remain with the pupils (Denmark). In other countries, the discussions have been concerned with entrance examinations and guidance programmes (Luxembourg, the United Kingdom) or on the continuity of content and methods (Flemish Community of Belgium, Germany, France, Italy, the Netherlands and the United Kingdom).

All the authorities in the field of education are trying to bring about the harmonisation of the transition from primary education to secondary education with a maximum of coherence in teaching.

National data on the debate on the transition from primary to secondary school

Belgium

Official documents in the **French Community** advocate a smooth transition from primary to secondary school.

In order to combat school failure, the **German-speaking Community** is concerned that the transition from primary to secondary school takes place as flexibly as possible.

Official documents in the **Flemish Community** include references to the conditions for admission and transition from primary to secondary school. There is debate concerning the best means to ease this transition. A service for educational development is seeking to improve the continuity between the two programmes. When study plans are defined, this problem is taken into consideration. A range of strategies has been implemented, such as the rearrangement of class timetables, remedial classes and the provision of support in schools which have responsibility for the children of migrants.

Denmark

Proposals for educational programmes include the observation of pupils' needs and their capabilities at different levels of development. Some teachers stay with their pupils from one year to the next and ensure that there is continuity.

Germany

The educational legislation of the *Länder* lays down the timing and conditions of the transition from primary to secondary school. The primary teachers take decisions on the type of education which the pupil will have in the first cycle of secondary education either at the end of the fourth year of primary in the *Länder* where the primary school is over four years, or at the end of the fifth and sixth years in the *Länder* where it is over six years. At the end of the period of primary education, the primary school teachers vote on this decision, after consulting parents. According to the *Land*, the decision taken by the primary teachers is either binding or optional. The pupil's future will then depend on the parents, or the school or the inspectorate.

The first two years of secondary school constitute an orientation phase. The curricula of the first cycle of secondary schools are harmonised in all schools.

Greece

The Pedagogical Institute is engaged in moving towards modifications to the programmes of studies in primary and secondary education to establish continuity.

Spain

The educational programme lays down the necessity of providing coherence between primary and secondary school.

France

The two final cycles of primary school cannot be extended for more than one year, so that pupils will not be too old when they enter secondary school. Gaps in what the pupils have learned should not prove insurmountable. It is the responsibility of the receiving teacher to organise the pupils' learning in such a way as to provide any necessary additional elements, while keeping in mind what the pupils have learned. This same process must take place when children are ready to undertake activities characteristic of the next stage, without a change of class being involved.

Italy

The Ministerial decree specifies that it is essential that secondary education be firmly based on the methodological characteristics inherent in the educational activities undertaken at primary school stage.

Luxembourg

Entrance examinations (in German, French and arithmetic), which are standardised for all pupils throughout the country, determine pupils' allocation to the different sections of secondary school.

The Netherlands

The definition of minimal competences which must be acquired *(kerndoelen)* determines precisely the attainments pupils require for the next stage of their education.

Portugal

In accordance with the law of 1992, transition from the second cycle of education to the third (age 12-15) depends on the results of the summative assessment at the end of the second cycle. This assessment is accompanied by a formative assessment of the pupil. There is no examination at the end of each cycle.

Some schools integrating all the three cycles of basic education (ages 6-15) have begun to operate on an experimental basis.

United Kingdom

Some schools, the grammar schools, in **England, Wales** and **Northern Ireland** employ selection criteria based on academic ability. The debate is over whether or not the national examination at the end of the cycle (age 11) can be considered a criterion for admission to a greater number of schools. The curriculum is designed to be continuous and cumulative through all four key stages.

In **Northern Ireland**, some grammar schools have preparatory sections for children of primary school age. These schools have no entrance requirements but they charge fees.

The curriculum in **Scotland** is designed to provide a smooth transition from primary to secondary school. All guidelines seek to provide continuity and progression through the five levels which mark the educational programme from age 5 to 14.

ANNEXES

Annex I. Numbers of Pupils in Primary Education, in Thousands: Trends in Pupil Populations

	1980/81	1981/82	1982/83	1983/84	1984/85	1985/86	1986/87	1987/88	1988/89	1989/90	1990/91
Belgium French Community	381	373	364	353	339	329	325	323	321	318	319
Belgium German-speaking Community									4.5	4.7	4.8
Belgium Flemish Community	476	463	449	437	430	429	430	434	435	434	430
Denmark	435	432	432	427	415	403	392	380	363	350	340
Germany	2784	2602	2452	2366	2306	2272	2288	2324	2388	2476	3542
Greece	901	891	890	888	890	888	866	868	* 863	* 846	* 819
Spain	3650	3676	3683	3656	3620	3537	3478	3309	* 3117	* 2979	2820
France	4740	4631	4479	4343	4204	4123	4118	4152	4176	4163	4149
Ireland	422	423	424	420	421	420	422	424	424	422	425
Italy	4423	4333	4204	4063	3904	3703	3518	3371	3242	3140	3056
Luxembourg	25	24	23	22	22	22	22	23	24	24	* 24
Netherlands	1333	1270	1202	1140	1095	1110	1097	1093	1086	1082	1156
Portugal	1240	1263	1306	1288	1275	1238	1234	1186	* 1140	* 1096	1026
United Kingdom	4911	4689	4474	4325	4317	4337	4361	4409	4448	4530	4574

Source: Eurostat Rapid Reports, No. 1(1992) and No. 3 (1993), and Belgian statistics.

For the Netherlands and the United Kingdom, special education is not included, except in 1990/91.

Statistics for the new *Länder* are included only from 1990/91.
* Estimated or provisional data.

601

Annex II. Number of Class Hours per Year

a. Pupils approx. age 6

	B	DK	D	GR	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	P	UK		
												England, Wales	Northern Ireland	Scotland
	28 x 50'	20 x 45'	20 x 45'	23 x 45'	25 x 60'	26 x 60'	18.3 x 60'	27 x 60'	18 x 55' +12 x 50'	22 x 60'	25 x 60'	21 x 60'	20 x 60'	22.5 x 60'
Weekly load	1400'	900'	900'	1035'	1500'	1560'	1100'	1620'	1590'	1320'	1500'	1260'	1200'	1350'
Number of days/week	5	5	5/6	5	5	5	5	5/6	6	5	5	5	5	5
Daily load	280'	180'	180'/±163'	207'	300'	312'	220'	324'/270'	265'	264'	300'	252'	240'	270'
Number of days/year	182	200	188/208	175	175	180	184	200	212	200	184	190	190	190
Annual load	849h20'	680 h	564 h	603h45'	875 h	936 h	674h40'	1080 h / 900 h	936h20'	880 h	920 h	798 h	665 h	855 h

The data come from the latest Danish official documents published in June 1993.

The first figure indicates the daily load based on the 5-day week, the second is based on the 6-day week.

Average.

Annex II. Number of Class Hours per Year

b. Pupils approx. age 9

	B	DK	D	GR	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	P	UK		
												England and Wales	Northern Ireland	Scotland
	28 x 50'	22 x 45'	25 x 45'	32 x 45'	25 x 60'	26 x 60'	23.3 x 60'	27 x 60'	18 x 55' +12 x 50'	25 x 60'	25 x 60'	23.5 x 60'	25 x 60'	25 x 60'
Weekly load	1400'	990'	1125'	1440'	1500'	1560'	1400'	1620'	1590'	1500'	1500'	1410'	1500'	1500'
Number of days/week	5	5	5/6	5	5	5	5	5/6	6	5	5	5	5	5
Daily load	280'	198'	225'/±203'	288'	300'	312'	280'	324'/270'	265'	300'	300'	282'	300'	300'
Number of days/year	182	200	188/208	175	175	180	184	200	212	200	184	190	190	190
Annual load	849h20'	660 h	705 h	840 h	875 h	936 h	858h40'	1080 h / 900 h	936h20'	1000 h	920 h	893 h	950 h	950 h

The first figure indicates the daily load based on the 5-day week; the second is based on the 6-day week.

Average.

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

Annex III. Number of Hours of Teaching by Subject, p.a.

a. At the beginning of primary education (estimate)

	B			DK	D (*Länder* average)	GR	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	P	UK		
	Fr. Com.	Ge.-sp. Com.	Fl. Com.											England, Wales	Scotland	Northern Ireland
	6/8 years	6/8 years	6/9 years	7 years	6 years	6/7 years	6/7 years			6 years	6 years			5/7 years		4/6 years
Mother Tongue	272	272	212	270	218	237	175			132	38			159		190
Maths	153	153	183	120	173	105	87.5			99	189			159		190
Manual and Artistic Activities	136	136	149	60	105	105	70			132	94			99		76
Physical Education	59	59	59	30	98	52.5	70			66	94			40		38
Religion/ Ethics	59	59	59	60	68	52.5	52.5			66	94			40		95
Civics																
History	93	93			90	52.5	87.5			99	94			71		38
Geography														71		38
Science			187	30						66				99		38
Health Educ.																
Environm. Ed.																
Multicult. Ed.																
European Dim.																
New. Techn.																
Social Skills	17	17														
Second Language		59									255					
Flexible	59			30			332.5			231	94			60		57

Annex III. Number of Hours of Teaching by Subject, p.a.

b. At age 9 (estimate)

	B			DK	D (*Länder* average)	GR	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	P	UK		
	Fr. Com.	Ge.-sp. Com.	Fl. Com.											England, Wales	Scotland	Northern Ireland
	9 years	9 years	9 years	9 years	9 years	9 years	9 years			9 years	9 years			9 years		9 years
Mother Tongue	212	212	212	211	218	237	139			132	29			179		190
Maths	152	152	183	119	203	79	87			99	162			179		190
Manual and Artistic Activities	91	91	149	119	166	105	52			132	95			98		76
Physical Education	61	61	59	59	116	52.5	52			66	95			45		38
Religion/ Ethics	61	61	59	33	83	52.5	52			66	95			45		95
Civics	30	30														
History	45			33		52.5	87			99	67			80		76
Geography	45	140	187		162									80		76
Science	61			59						66				112		114
Health Educ.																
Environm. Ed.						79										
Multicult. Ed.																
European Dim.																
New Techn.																
Social Skills	15	15														
Second Language		90			26	79	87			99	381					
Flexible	75			33			323			231	29			76		95

BIBLIOGRAPHY

- *The Organisation of School Time in the Member States of the European Community.*
  - Brussels : Eurydice European Unit, 1993. - 52 p.
  - ISBN 2-87116-214-X.

- *Regulations Concerning Compulsory Education in the Member States of the European Community.*
  - Brussels : Eurydice European Unit, 1991. - 33 p.
  - ISBN 2-87116-170-4.

- *Private/Non-State Education : Forms and Status in the Member States of the European Community.*
  - Brussels : Eurydice European Unit, 1992. - 95 p.
  - ISBN 2-87116-192-5.

- *Childcare in the European Community, 1985-1990.*
  - Brussels : Commission of the European Communities, 1990. - 80 p.
  - (*Women of Europe* ; No 31).
  - ISSN 1012-1943.

- *Education in the European Community during the Eighties.*
  - Luxembourg : Eurostat, 1992. - 4 p.
  - (Rapid Reports : Population and social conditions ; No 1).
  - ISSN 1015-3306.

- *Pupils and students in the Community Regions.*
  - Luxembourg : Eurostat, 1993. - 8 p.
  - (Rapid Reports : Regions ; No. 3).
  - ISSN 1013-0535.

- *Measures to Combat School Failure : A Challenge for the Construction of Europe : A Summary.*
  - Brussels : Eurydice European Unit, 1993. - 20 p.
  - ISBN 2-87116-211-5.

- *Structures of the Education and Initial Training Systems in the Member States of the European Community / EURYDICE ; CEDEFOP.*
  - Brussels : Eurydice European Unit, 1991. - 206 p.
  - ISBN 2-87116-164-X.

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

EURYDICE

The Education Information Network in the European Union

Educational Cooperation in the Union

The education systems in the twelve EU Member States vary considerably and this variety, which is the result of historical and cultural factors, is itself a source of wealth.

In order to ensure that this diversity does not become an obstacle to the free movement of people, it is essential to provide effective information on the operation and structures of the education systems. It is also vital for each country to benefit from the experience of its partners in the Union and thus contribute to the development of European educational cooperation.

In February 1976, the Council of the European Communities and the Ministers of Education adopted an action programme in the field of education[1] and agreed amongst other things to set up an information network. This information network, known as EURYDICE, was designed therefore to underpin educational cooperation within the European Union.

It was recognised in 1990 as the chief instrument for providing information on national and Community structures, systems and developments in the field of education.[2]

Each Member State has, in accordance with its own distinctive education structures, designated at least one Unit to participate in the network and the Commission of the European Communities has set up the EURYDICE European Unit.

The functioning of EURYDICE is based on cooperation among all the Units. In addition, the European Unit has been given the task of coordinating and stimulating the network.

[1] Official Journal C 38, 19.2.1976, p.1.

[2] Official Journal C 329, 31.12.1990, p.23.

Eurydice's kontorer
Eurydice - Informationsstellen
Eurydice Information Units
Unités du Réseau Eurydice
Unità di Informazione Eurydice

EUROPEAN COMMUNITY
The Eurydice European Unit
Rue d'Arlon 15
B-1040 Brussels
Tel.: 32-2-238.30.11
Telefax: 32-2-230.65.62

BELGIQUE/BELGIE
Unité Belge d'Eurydice (Communauté française)
Ministère de l'Education, de la Recherche et de la Formation
Secrétariat Général
Cité Administrative de l'Etat
Boulevard Pacheco 19, Bte 0, 7e étage
B-1010 Bruxelles
Tel.: 32-2-210.55.25
Telefax: 32-2-210.55.38

Belgische Eurydice-Eenheid (Vlaamse Gemeenschap)
Ministerie van Vlaamse Gemeenschap
Centrum voor Informatie en Documentatie
Departement Onderwijs
Koningsstraat 71
B-1000 Brussel
Tel.: 32-2-219.87.54
Telefax: 32-2-219.77.73

DANMARK
Eurydice's Informationskontor i Danmark
Undervisningsministeriet
Frederiksholms Kanal 25 D
DK-1220 København K
Tel.: 45-33-92.52.01
Telex: 22275
Telefax: 45-33-92.55.67

BUNDESREPUBLIK DEUTSCHLAND
Eurydice Informationsstelle beim
Bundesministerium für Bildung und Wissenschaft
Heinemannstrasse 2
D-53170 Bonn
Tel.: 49-228-57.28.33
Telex: 3630=bmbw
Telefax: 49-228-57.20.96

Eurydice Informationsstelle im
Sekretariat der Ständigen Konferenz der Kultusminister der Länder
Nassestrasse 8
D-53113 Bonn
Tel.: 49-228-50.12.70
Telex: 886587 kmk d
Telefax: 49-228-50.13.01

ESPAÑA
Unidad Nacional de Eurydice
Centro Nacional de Investigación, Documentación y Evaluación
c/ San Agustín 5
E-28014 Madrid
Tel.: 34-1-549.66.81
Telefax: 34-1-543.73.90

FRANCE
Unité Nationale d'Eurydice
Ministère de l'Education Nationale
Direction des Affaires Générales,
Internationales et de la Coopération
Sous-Direction des Affaires Multilatérales
Bureau de l'Evaluation, de l'Information
et de Comparaisons Internationales
Rue de Grenelle 110
F-75357 Paris
Tel.: 33-1-40.65.66.65 / 40.65.67.66
Telex: 33-1-40.270925
Telefax: 33-1-45.44.57.87

Eurydice Informatiediensten
Μονάδες του Δικτύου
Πληροφοριών Ευρυδίκη
Unidades de la Red Eurydice
Unidades da Rede Eurydice

HELLAS
Eurydice
Ministry of Education
Mitropoleos 15
GR-10185 Athens
Tel.: 30-1-323.74.80
Telex: 216270
Telefax: 30-1-322.07.67

IRELAND
Eurydice Unit / E.C. Section
Department of Education
6th floor - Apollo House
Tara Street
Dublin 2
Tel.: 353-1-873.47.00
Telex: 31136
Telefax: 353-1-679.13.15

ITALIA
L'Unità Nazionale di Eurydice
Ministero della Pubblica Istruzione
Biblioteca di Documentazione Pedagogica
Palazzo Gerini, Via Buonarroti 10
I-50122 Firenze
Tel.: 39-55-241.187
Telefax: 39-55-242.884

LUXEMBOURG
Unité Nationale d'Eurydice
Centre de Psychologie et d'Orientation Scolaire
Route de Longwy 280
L-1940 Luxembourg
Tel.: 352-45.64.64.604
Telex: 3311 MENJ LU
Telefax: 352-45.45.44

NEDERLAND
Nationale dienst van Eurydice
Bibliotheek en Documentatie
Ministerie van Onderwijs en Wetenschappen
Postbus 25000
2700 LZ Zoetermeer
Tel.: 31-79-53.35.94
Telex: 32636
Telefax: 31-79-53.19.53

PORTUGAL
Unidade de Eurydice
Ministerio da Educação
Departamento de Programação e Gestao Financeira (DEPGEF)
Praça de Alvalade, 12
P-1700 Lisboa
Tel.: 351-1-847.24.77
Telefax: 351-1-847.24.82

UNITED KINGDOM
Eurydice Unit London
National Foundation for Educational Research
The Mere, Upton Park
Slough, Berks SL1 2DQ
Tel.: 44-753-57.41.23
Telefax: 44-753-69.16.32

Eurydice Unit Scotland
Scottish Office Education Department
Room 801
43 Jeffrey Street
Edinburgh EH1 1DN
Tel.: 44-31-244.46.49
Telefax: 44-31-244.53.87

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

EURYDICE EUROPEAN UNIT
Rue d'Arlon 15
B - 1040 Brussels